DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 345 872 PS 020 603

TITLE	Selected Papers from the Breivogel Conference (University of South Florida at Fort Myers, April 10-12, 1991).
INSTITUTION	Florida Educational Research and Development Council, Inc., Sanibel.
PUB DATE	91
NOTE	91p.
AVAILABLE FROM	FERDC, P.O. Box 506, Sanibel, FL 33957 ($3.50).
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Collected Works - Serials (022)
JOURNAL CIT	Florida Educational Research Council Research Bulletin; v22 n4 Spr 1991
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	At Risk Persons; Early Childhood Education; *Educational Improvement; Educational Innovation; *Educational Quality; Elementary Secondary Education; Higher Education; *Intervention; Middle Schools; Minority Groups; Program Descriptions; *Program Evaluation; Reading Diagnosis; Teacher Education; Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS	Florida; Middle School Instructional Practices Scale

ABSTRACT

This research bulletin presents six selected papers from the annual conference of the Florida Educational Research Council. The papers are intended to help educators improve the quality of education in their communities. The papers are: (1) "Minority Education Intervention: The Experience of Two Programs with Middle and High School Students and Their Families," by Lee Duffus and Madelyn Isaacs, which discusses the development, characteristics, and assessment of two school intervention programs; (2) "Efficacy of At-Risk Children Teaching Programs," by Carolyn Lavely and others, which reviews the literature concerning programs designed to enhance the educational development of at-risk children; (3) "Measuring Implementation: Tools for Researchers," by Marsha M. Sprague, which outlines investigations into the nature of the implementation of educational innovations; (4) "Mediated Reading Levels of Chapter 1 Third Grade Students," by Sherry Kragler, which examines the placement of children in reading groups; (5) "From the Garden of Academus to Imaginative Planning for Teacher Education," by Carolyn Spillman and others, which considers several current elements in teacher education programs at the University of South Florida and elsewhere; and (6) "The Middle School Instructional Practices Scale," by Roberta Thomas and others, which describes a middle school assessment scale used in the Orange County, Florida, public schools. Reference lists are included with individual articles. (BC)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

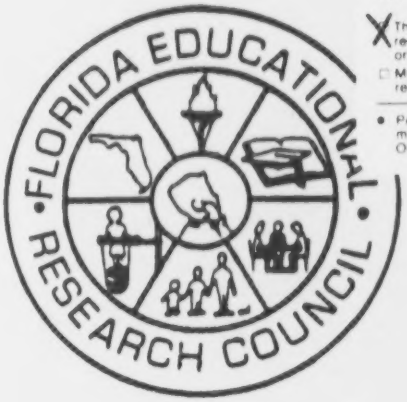
PS

FLORIDA EDUCATIONAL
RESEARCH COUNCIL

RESEARCH BULLETIN

ED345872

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy



Selected Papers from the Breivogel Conference April 10-12, 1991, University of South Florida at Fort Myers

Contributors (partial list)
Dr. John Follman
Dr. Carolyn Spillman
Dr. Lee Duffus
Dr. Sherry Kragler
Dr. Marsha Sprague
Dr. Roberta Thomas

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
C. T. Council
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

Volume 22 Spring 1991 Number 4

PS 020603

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

FLORIDA EDUCATIONAL
RESEARCH COUNCIL, INC.

RESEARCH BULLETIN

Selected Papers from the Breivogel Conference April 10-12, 1991, University of South Florida at Fort Myers

Contributors (partial list)
Dr. John Follman
Dr. Carolyn Spillman
Dr. Lee Duffus
Dr. Sherry Kragler
Dr. Marsha Sprague
Dr. Roberta Thomas

Additional copies of this book may be obtained from:
FERDC
P.O. Box 506
Sanibel, Florida 33957

Individual Copies ..... $ 3.50
Annual Subscription $12.00

10% Discount on an order of 5 or more.
Order of less than $20.00 must be accompanied by a check or money order.

Table of Contents

Minority Education Intervention: The Experience of Two Programs with Middle and High School Students and Their Families 5

Background 5

Theoretical Underpinnings for Program Components 5

Public School Intervention Programs 9

Program Development and Evolution 10

Program Assessment 13

Future Directions 15

References 17

Efficacy of At-Risk Children Teaching Programs 21

Long Term Evaluations of Early Education Programs 22

Follow Through 23

Title I Compensatory Education 24

Reviews of Literature of Effective At-Risk Children Cross-ASE Teaching Programs 24

Recent Individual Programs 26

Conclusions 27

References 29

Measuring Implementation: Tools for Researchers 33

Implementing Innovations 33

Measuring Level of Implementation 35

References 39

Mediated Reading Levels of Chapter I Third Grade Students 41

Assessment Practices Regarding Reading Placement 42

Table of Contents (Continued)

Dynamic Assessment 43

Procedures and Results 43

Mediated Basal Lesson 44

Implications 45

References 47

From the Garden of Academus to Imaginative Planning in Teacher Education 49,50

Team Approach Rationale 50

Structure of Field Experiences and Supervision 53

Integration of Coursework 56

Program Faculty Involvement 58

Relationships Among University, Schools, Teachers, Interns, and Community 59

Research Network 61

Conclusion 63

References 65

The Middle School Instructional Practices Scale 63

Introduction 63

Middle School Instructional Practices Scale Instructions for Use 70

Introduction of Formal Academic Disciplines at the Appropriate Level 72

Accommodating Developmental Diversity 73

Essential Skill Focus (Remediation Development, Introduction) 74

Promoting Higher Order Thinking Processes 75

Practical Application/Curriculum Relevance 76

Table of Contents (Continued)

Instructional Methods and Strategies 77

Contemporary Instructional Practices 78

Success-Oriented Focus 79

Lesson Extension 80

Communication About Student Progress 81

Instructional Materials 82

Developing Student Responsibility and Independence 83

Grouping Practices (Within the Team) 84

Grouping Practices (Within the Classroom) 85

Action Plan for MSIPS 86, 87

Board of Directors 89

Advisors 89, 90

Council Members 90-92

Editor's Note ..... Inside Back Cover

Minority Education Intervention: The Experience of Two Programs with Middle and High School Students and their Families

Lee R. Duffus, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Marketing and
Madelyn L. Isaacs, Ph.d., Director of Student Affairs
University of South Florida at Fort Myers

Background

The social and economic costs of undereducation have been widely reported in scholarly and popular literature alike (Commission on Minority Participation in American Life, 1988; Nussbaum, 1988). All agree that the costs are increasing and alarming. For example, dropouts currently cost the United States an estimated $240 billion annually in lost earnings, taxes and social services. Dropouts constitute 40% of minority youth, 75% of the prison population and 85% of the juveniles in court (Hodgkinson, 1990). Dropping out is widely accepted as being related to the rate of illiteracy, the latter of which is highly correlated to rates of unemployment and underemployment.

Generally, dropout rates are highest for minority students and they tend to leave school earlier than white counterparts. They follow in the footsteps of their parents who too often suffer from the same lack of educational achievement and attainment.

Lee County is no different than other communities nationally in its experience with the undereducation of its population; most especially of its minority population. Lee County's dropout rate increased in the 1980's to as high as 10.5% annually and it has been estimated that as many as 30% of Lee County minorities drop out before reaching high school. This is consistent with national estimates of migrant and black ages for leaving school in fifth and eighth grade respectively (Tate, M. & Patton, L., personal communication, 1987 and 1988).

Theoretical Underpinings for Program Components

In an attempt to understand variations in minority student performance and aspirations, researchers have analyzed data related to various social and psychological factors. These include self-efficacy, self-concept, racial discrimination and africentrism, level of parental support and expectations and role models.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy determines whether a behavior or action will be taken based on whether the desired outcome is perceived as achievable and whether or not one believes one can successfully perform the behavior required to achieve that outcome (Bandura, 1977, 1982; Bandura & Schunk 1981; Egan, 1986). Ways to strengthen self-efficacy include providing successful experiences, modeling, encouragement and reducing fear and anxiety (Egan, 1986).

Self-Concept/Self-Esteem

Career development theories offer several useful perspectives concerning mechanisms of career choice and implementation. One's values affect specific choices, occupational preferences and occupational satisfaction (Mobley and Locke, 1970). Since values are often culturally or subculturally based, predictions of minority career choices and satisfactions may differ from those of the majority.

The nature of self-concept and vocational concept development suggest that role modeling is an integral part of how one learns what one wants to be (Super, 1957; Super & Crites 1962; Super, Starischevsky, Matlin & Jordaan, 1963). Super (1963) and Ginzberg, et al (1951) show the pre-adolescent in an exploratory stage which becomes more narrowly defined as adolescence nears. Concurrently, the child's focus for self-concept formation shifts from the family to the peer group. The end of middle school coincides chronologically and developmentally with the beginning of a crystallization stage during which the adolescent begins to formulate specific ideas about work which may be self-suited. In that process reality testing begins and functions in conjunction with educational decisions and continued self-concept development.

Self-esteem and the satisfaction of basic needs have long been held to impact on motivation and ability to achieve and attain. Maslow's sense that one cannot aspire and actualize one's potentials without safety, food, shelter and esteem goes well with theories of therapy and counseling. These theories point to research studies which identify a positive correlation between self-esteem improvement and achievement (see for example, Stewart and Lewis, 1986). This principle is behind the elementary school guidance focus on self-esteem needs.

When coupled with a depressed sense of efficacy, one can begin to understand why current motivational and career efforts are often lost on minority youth. Children will not aspire beyond their esteem levels nor beyond their beliefs about what they can realistically accomplish. The context for minority children is often one which limits the goals and aspirations to exclude a college education in this way.

Racial Discrimination and Africentrism

From another perspective, studies of the effects of desegregation on majority and minority children's achievement and self-esteem have yielded some interesting conclusions (Rich, 1987). Majority students generally show no positive or negative effects from desegregation but minority students' self-esteem is critically effected when desegregation occurs in late elementary school after attending poorer quality schools. While our local community has been desegregated for some years, the implication that prior academic achievement and attainment have deleterious effects on self-esteem and thus on motivation to compete and achieve anew, may be relevant to our minority children.

Other important principles which guide program development include differences in subcultural socialization and in perceived support of minority youth by family members. Cheatam (1990), in putting forth a model for career development which capitalizes on Africentrism vs. traditional models which capitalize on Eurocentrism, raises several interesting points.

Citing historical and recent data which identify reasons for black youth to believe they are permanently in an underclass, Cheatam discussed the lack of consideration of black's experience with racial discrimination and culturally influenced values regarding work and education in modern career development theory or practice as main reasons why current practices in schools do not coincide with developmental stages for blacks. He also notes as an example that an Africentric view of work which highly values group progress and cooperation as being dysfunctional in the American work ethic. Other examples cited include differences in management and interaction styles between cultures. Smith's (1975) critical literature review confirms that black vocational development maybe out-of-synch with the current mostly Eurocentric theories.

Imagery

A therapeutic technique recently found effective with career counseling and life planning is the use of mental imagery (Skovholt, Morgan, Negron-Cunningham, 1989). The techniques generally foster guided imagery, fantasies, or even daydreams, based on the ability of the client to project themselves onto a given mental landscape, toward helping identify career paths and specify goals and aspirations. The power of harnessing daydreams and fantasies into self-awareness and esteem building experiences is coupled with the power of holding onto one's dreams.

Giving students an experience from which to dream and create fantasies must surely feed their consideration of future realities. The imagery of Dr. Martin Luther King's very words from August 28, 1963, which moved a nation to dare to dream, is especially poignant - "I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up...I have a dream today . . . . "

Parental/Familial Influences

From yet another perspective, York-Anderson and Bowman (1991) continued research about parental level of education and achievement for college students; especially the experience of "first generation" college students - those whose parents or older siblings had not attended college. They found that first generation students perceived less family support and often more pressure to succeed in college.

There is a positive correlation between parental expectations and parental support and academic achievement among minority students (Attinasi, 1989; Epps, 1969; Tracey & Sedlacek, 1984). Parents' level of education, savings for college and encouragement is related to postsecondary education plans of ninth graders (Stage and Hossler, 1989). Parental encouragement has positive effects on students' level of expectations (Conklin and Dailey, 1981) and is significantly related to college plans (Murphy, 1981). Finally, other studies conducted point to the effects of parental support and knowledge on persistence and attrition once in college (see for example, Billson and Terry, 1982; Conklin and Dailey, 1981; Mallinckrodt, 1988).

The development of a network of accessible and identifiable adult role models was justified by a variety of sources previously

cited. However, peer support and role modeling for multicultural students finds support in research which identified an adversarial relationship between counselors and clients of different races and the successful experience of a program which turned campus leaders from ethnic and racial minorities into supportive and effective peer counselors (Stokes, Gonzales, Rowe, Romero, Adams, Lyons, & Rayfield, 1988).

Finally, high self-esteem individuals are more likely to implement self-concept through occupational choice than low self-esteem people (Kormna, 1969). Since children's role models in occupations are often parents and neighbors and since minority groups historically have lower educational and occupational achievement and attainment, minority children may be learning lessons which go against career development efforts in the schools. By providing experiences which demonstrate and reward (encourage) success, by seeking out peer and adult role models, by reducing fears of the unknown, by making dreams and aspirations more real possibilities, and by garnering the precious support of parents and family members and giving them more information with which to be supportive, it is more likely that minority students will raise aspiration levels and achieve and attain more of their educational and life dreams. This is the premise behind the following intervention programs.

Public School Intervention Programs

Three years ago, as a direct consequence of the high dropout rate in Lee County among middle school minority youth, College-for-a-Day was developed and implemented. Scholars' Club, a natural outgrowth which promotes scholarship and leadership among minority students began a year later. Both programs operate in a partnership with the Lee County public school system.

College-for-a Day Program

The principal objectives of College-for-a-Day are to introduce higher education as a realistic goal for academically able minority students by demystifying the process and environment to them and their families. The program has several key elements which distinguishes it from other high school recruitment and intervention programs.

* Targeting a middle school population before they finalize decisions to drop out and at a critical time in their development.

* Involving parents and families in every program opportunity.

* Bringing them to the university campus for a first-hand experience of the environment and its programs.

* Exposing them to successful minority role models.

* Addressing issues of education and its relationship to greater choices and flexibility throughout one's life.

* Presenting the initial concepts associated with financing college education early.

* Involvement with these students and their families with different annual programs through to high school completion.

Scholars' Club

Scholars' Club makes leadership experiences available to minority students who might not otherwise avail themselves of involvements in high school and middle school. By putting a premium on scholarship and achievement and by making membership attractive for indigenous peer support and recognition, students are encouraged to set and achieve goals commensurate with their talents. Importantly, Scholars' Club provides a legitimate and supportive environment for the examination of cultural diversity and promotion of minority cultures; especially for cultures who had previously not had the opportunity to participate with group activities.

Program Development and Evolution

College-for-a-Day was the first of the two programs and was created spring 1988. As conceived, it was designed to directly expose minority school children in the community to the university. Students were invited to a 4-hour session involving presen-

tations on the value of education, introductions to positive minority role models and sitting in on specially developed lectures. The initial goal was simple, give high risk minority middle school students a feel for college before they drop out and invite their parents to come to separate information sessions.

Two pilot groups, each comprising a mixture of seventh and eighth graders were initially invited. The first group was made up primarily of students in the middle school's Mentor Program; the second were students who needed acute drop-out prevention efforts. Each group was treated to lunch with college students, a guest speaker, tours of the campus, a college class, work in the computer lab and a magic show by one of the university faculty. During one presentation a student was invited to wear the academic regalia of a faculty member. The student's experience was manifestly positive. This experience has become a permanent feature of the program. The program now includes photograph sessions where participants pose for and receive specially made buttons showing them in caps and gowns. Another program feature is College-for-a-Day diplomas for all program participants.

The first full year of operation, 1988-89, brought 8 middle schools from Lee County in groups of 30 to 40 students. Occupational Specialists served as in-school contacts and facilitated selection and transportation arrangements. Once identified, parents were invited by letter from the university. Parents and students were provided with a specially developed list of "typical" questions.

The major initial operational problem was student misunderstanding about the motivation behind their selection for participation in the program. In general, this was addressed by special "discussion" visits to the school by a College-for-a-Day faculty. Also, a decision was made to provide personalized invitations to student participants.

According to student feedback, the latter made them feel privileged rather than picked on.

The evolution of the College-for-a-Day program continues. Recent programmatic innovations include an annual homecoming, PSAT preparation targeted to tenth grade alumni and planned college application and financial aid workshops for late eleventh graders. Also, we are currently working on development of a system to track program alumni through college.

The Scholars' Club is a natural outgrowth of the College-for-a-

Day program. Begun by a local high school student in fall 1989, the Scholars' Club grew out of unmet needs for positive peer group identification, perceived lack of opportunities for leadership and rewards for scholarship and excellence among minority students. The Scholars' Club has since developed chapters in other area schools. Its linkage to College-for-a-Day includes joint sponsorship of events such as the Annual Homecoming for alumni.

The success of the Scholars' Club is due primarily to the fact that though it is an elite group (members must have a minimum 2.5 GPA) it also is associated with "fun" activities. These include banquets, fashion shows, community service, public speaking, peer tutoring and pre-admission trips to universities. Club members sign contracts to improve grades and maintain behavioral and academic standards. Special recognitions for these improvements are made at the annual banquet.

A special feature of Scholars' Club is its Board of Advisors, a group of concerned and involved community and business leaders who serve as role models and provide resource support. This group communicates a sense of caring and concern for the students and their futures.

Many students express high aspirations - professional careers including doctors, lawyers, engineers and other solid aspirations including computer science, business, cosmetology - and some clearly have dreams of being among the small percentage who really make it through professional sports or acting. Many students demonstrate a lack of understanding of what the educational requirements are for their chosen fields. Program components involving discussions with role models and with campus staff have been designed to illustrate answers to these questions.

Lessons from Marketing

Both programs applied some important lessons from marketing. Specially designed buttons and shirts, each displaying a distinctive logo, identify members as belonging to the Scholars' Club. It was also deemed important for students to be able to have physical reminders of their College-for-a-Day visits and to promote their participation and selection as a privilege. A logo was developed with identifiable graphic and catch phrase. All initial program materials including posters and the invitation bear the picture of a school bus en route to the campus. Giveaways devel-

oped for Homecoming included a bumper sticker in fluorescent pink with a a pair of sunglasses and a cap and diploma which says "School is Cool." This logo was applied to visors and frisbees and other program reminders by using stickers. All of these go along with picture giveaways, buttons and diplomas.

Parental Involvement

While parents are always invited to participate in College-for-a-Day activities, only few have chosen or been able to attend. Campus visits are on Fridays throughout the school year and many parents cannot give up income to attend sessions. Our experience has been that between 1 and 3 parents will come, meet with a student affairs staff member, tour the campus and learn about financial aid. Homecoming has drawn more parental participation since it is scheduled for a Saturday. However, some program alumni cannot attend because of work schedules.

Selection of Participants

The cooperation of each school and their staff has enhanced the success of the College-for-a-Day program. Early recognition of the inadequacy of the program designers in selecting students led to this function being performed by participant schools. Each school was asked to; identify students according to their academic potential and risk profile, and to focus on minority students. Some schools simply elected their minority students. Others report a concerted effort on the part of counselors and teachers to identify those who might benefit from the experience most. One school, whose poor white students are often in as great a need of this kind of experience as its minority students, used its free lunch program list as a starting point from which to select students. Their assumption has been that such white students were of a "minority profile" in all ways but racial heritage.

Program Assessment

To date, program assessment has been both formal and informal. Concerning the former, attitudes of College-for-a-Day student participants and accompanying counselors and teachers were measured using self-administered questionnaires during

the first year of program operation. Students indicated that they had a better understanding of the requirements and benefits of attending a university, were motivated to attend a university, and enjoyed the program; specifically elements such as computer and marketing classes, lunch, and presentation by role models.

College-for-a-Day staff as well as visiting counselors and students provide some feedback regarding program elements, presentations and student receptivity but real success, keeping students in school or motivating them to achieve will take much longer to measure. One interesting and unintended success involves two parents who themselves, as a result of participation in College-for-a-Day, were motivated to enroll at Edison Community College. At least one of these parents also managed to gain financial support for her efforts.

Success of the Scholars' Club is manifested by increase in GPA, proliferation of chapters, the number and range of club activities, and growth in attendance of club activities such as dances and fashion shows.

Schools and parents have provided some anecdotal information about College-for-a-Day. Several parents called USF and expressed appreciation for its interest in their children. This direct parental contact takes special effort since their child's school and not USF is their primary contact. Other parents have observed significant improvement in student attitude and/or increase in their positive discussions about the future and college. One parent reported that the College-for-a-Day experience tipped the scales for her daughter, one she described as "riding the fence" between staying in school and dropping out.

Schools have indicated successes as well. The young man who first wore a cap and gown early in the College-for-a-Day program has gone from a nonattentive and nonachieving student to one who has raised his grade point average and his aspirations. Over 65% of Scholars' Club members of the founding chapter have met their challenge and raised grades or maintained already high grades. In both programs teachers write or call and describe the students who had previously been marginal and who have made strides toward improvements.

College-for-a-Day students themselves have been very revealing. Some arrive on campus with an already bored attitude and leave with very animated discussions about where they want to go to college and what they are going to do when they get there.

Others have written thank you notes telling us what they got out of the program. One female student who recently attended Homecoming wanted so much to participate that she arrived at 6:30 a.m. for a 10:00 a.m. event, the only time she could get transportation.

Finally, word of College-for-a-Day quickly disseminated beyond the local community. Shortly after its inception, a high school in a neighboring county (Hendry) that caters to a large migrant population asked to participate. They have participated ever since.

Future Directions

A recent College Reach-Out grant to USF and Edison Community College will ensure some measure of continuation of the College-for-a-Day program. ECC will provide school identified College-for-a-Day alumni who have special needs for basic skills improvements and will bring them to campus through the summer for instruction in any or all of math, writing, reading and self-exploration/career development efforts. Some will go on field trips to other community colleges for educational programs and a select few will spend a week in residence at USF in Tampa. The Reach-Out design includes college-student mentors and tutors to maintain the strength of the peer elements begun in both programs.

The relationship between College-for-a-Day and Scholars' Club will be strengthened as chapters of the latter proliferate through middle and high schools. Through this connection, the movement toward better achievement and attainment will tend to become institutionalized within the minority student population.

Both programs are in their early stages of development. Both need to be institutionalized in the university and the public school system. Evidence that this is already happening abounds. Currently three Scholars' Club chapters exist, and there are plans to start at least two in the next school year. USF recognized College-for-a-Day for its affirmative action efforts, and the program is widely supported by public school staff.

College-for-a-Day is approved by the Lee County School Board to receive copies of the location finders to track names and addresses of our alumni. In the near future, school authorities in participant communities will be asked to collaborate in develop-

ing a mechanism to track the achievement and attainment of alumni.

There are several areas which seem ripe for expansion. The literature is replete with reports of startling disillusionment among children in elementary schools. Head Start and local programs like Alpha and Beta have been very successful in identifying and working with high risk children. A premise of these programs is that there may be ways for even earlier impact in a child's education and that such intervention could yield more positive results. Another area responds to the stated mission of these programs. While the ultimate aim is to keep students in school through high school to enhance their choices as adults, it is likely that students with other educational/training objectives, perceiving that there are programmatic bias toward higher education will tend to ignore the message. Local and national economic projections indicate that future workers will need skills, but not necessarily the kind gained in college. Thus, programs such as College-for-a-Day and Scholars' Club should focus on the value of both vocational training and post-secondary education. This is a pragmatic accommodation to the reality that not all able students will seek or complete college and not all communities would be able to adequately employ them if they did.

As a dynamic program in a growing community, College-for-a-Day will have to keep pace with the changing complexion of its minority constituency - increasingly Hispanic and will have to make accommodations to the special needs of these students. For example, only after one middle school's visit was scheduled was it discovered that its largely migrant minority population would already have departed the community to follow the crops.

Finally, the constant search for funding continues. College-for-a-Day grants have been sought with local community foundations and with corporations as distant as Ben and Jerry's foundation. The program currently operates with a commitment from the campus administration to fund it through a small foundation account. For its part, Scholars' Club has been funded from its inception by community grants, student fund-raising and membership dues. This funding approach is expected to continue into the future.

REFERENCES

Attinasi, L.C. (1989). Getting in: Mexican Americans' perceptions of university attendance and the implications for freshman year persistence, *Journal of Higher Education, 60*, 247-277.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy agency in human agency. *American Psychologist, 37*, 122-147.

Bandura, A. & Schunk, D.A. (1986). Cultivating competence, self-efficacy, and intrinsic interest through proximal self-motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 41*, 386-398.

Billson, J.M. & Terry, M.B. (1982). In search of the silken purse: factors in attrition among first-generation students. *College and University, 58*, 57-75.

Cheatam, H.E. (1990). Africentricity and career development of African Americans. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 38, 335-346.

Commission on Minority Participation in Education and American Life, (1988). *One-third of a Nation: A report of the Commission on Minority Participation in Education and American Life.* Washington, DC: American Council on Education and the Education Commission of the States.

Conklin, M.E. & Dailey, A.R. (1981). Does consistency of parental encouragement matter for secondary students? *Sociology of Education, 54*, 254-262.

Egan, G. (1986). *The Skilled Helper.* Monterrey, Calif: Brooks/Cole.

Ehrlich, E. & Garland, S.B. (1988). For American Business, A New World of Workers, *Business Week*, 9/19, 112-120.

Epps, E.G. (1969). *Family and achievement: a study of the relation of family background to achievement orientation and performance among urban Negro high school students.* Final report, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, DC.

Ginzberg, E., Ginsburg, S.W., Axelrad, S., & Herma, J.L. (1951). *Occupational choice: an approach to a general theory.* New York: Columbia University.

Hodgkinson, H., (1990). Key Demographics Information, *Report on the Regional Educational Executives Issues Forum* (Monograph Series Number One), Florida: West Central Regional Management Development Network.

Korman, A.K. (1969). Self-esteem as a moderator in vocational choice: replications and extensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 53*, 188-192.

Mallinckrodt, B. Student retention, social support, and dropout intention: comparison of black and white students. *Journal of College Student Development, 29*, 60-64.

Mobley, W.H., & Locke, E.A. (1970). The relationship of value importance to satisfaction. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 5*, 463-483.

Nussbaum, B. (1988). Human Capital: The Decline of America's Workforce, *Business Week*, 9/19, 100-103.

Osipow, S.H. (1983). Theories of career development. (3rd ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Rich, Y. (1987). The potential contribution of school counseling to school integration. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 65*, 495-498.

Skovholt, T.M., Morgan, J.I., Negron-Cunningham, H. (1989). Mental imagery in career counseling and life planning: a review of research and intervention methods. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 67*, 287-292.

Smith, E.J. Profile of the black individual in vocational literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 6*, 379-389.

Stage, F.K., & Hossler, D. (1989). Differences in family influences on college attendance plans for male and female ninth graders. *Research in Higher Education*, 30, 301-315.

Stewart, C.G., & Lewis, W.A. (1986). Effects of assertiveness training on the self-esteem of Black high school students. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 64, 638-642.

Stokes, D.R., Gonzales, M., Rowe, D., Romero, D., Admas, M., Lyons, S., & Rayfield, G.E. (1988). Multicultural peer counseling: a developmental perspective and rationale. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 67*, 55-56.

Super, D.E. (1957). *The psychology of careers*. New York: Harper & Row.

Super, D.E. (1963). Self-concepts in vocational development. In Super, D.E. et al, *Career development: self-concept theory*. New York: CEEB Research Monograph No. 4.

Super, D.E., & Crites, J.O. (1962). *Appraising vocational fitness*. New York: Harper and Row.

Super, D.E., Starischevsky, R., Matlin, N., and Jordaan, J. P. (1963). *Career development: self concept theory*. New York: CEEB Research Monograph No. 4.

Tracey, T.J., & Sedlacek, W.E. (1984). Noncognitive variables in predicting academic success by race. *Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, 16*, 171-178.

York-Anderson, D.C., & Bowman, S.L. (1991). Assessing the college knowledge of first-generation and second-generation college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 32*, 116-122.

Efficacy of At-Risk Children Teaching Programs

Carolyn Lavely, Neal Berger, Joseph Blackman,
Donna Bullock, John Follman
Institute for Instructional Research and Practice
University of South Florida

The purpose of this paper is to overview the literature, much of it reviews, of the efficacy of interventions, efforts, programs purported to enhance the development, especially educational development, of at-risk children.

Garwood et al. (1989) reported that, in 1989, there were 93 programs to enhance children's development conducted by 13 federal agencies. This is some indication of the scope of just the federal effort.

Stipek & McCroskey (1989) reported that the American family had undergone dramatic change in recent years reflecting increasing divorces, out-of-wedlock births, births by teen-age mothers, number of working mothers, and poverty especially in single parent families. Poverty rates increased from 11.6% in 1979 to 14% in 1985. Unfortunately, however, families with children have high representation in poverty with 22% of all children in poverty in 1983. Further, the children at greatest risk of poverty were those living with single parents (35%), Blacks (47%), and Hispanics (38%). Conger (1988) reported that children were now the only age group overrepresented in the poverty population. Rothman (1990, August 1) reported National Education Longitudinal Survey of 1988 findings that 20% of all eighth grade students and 40% of black and Hispanic students are at high risk of school failure. Furthermore, 47% of all eighth graders have at least one factor placing them at risk for school failure.

At risk is the label currently attached to students who are educationally at risk for poor achievement and dropping out. Historically, these children have been called "culturally disadvantaged," "culturally deprived," low income, poor, low achieving, basics, remedial, urban ghetto, inner city, language impaired, etc.

Slavin & Madden (1987) noted the difficulties inherent in defining at risk but indicated that the fact that children are not achieving adequately in the early grades, along with low SES, is a good indicator. Rodriguez (1990) compiled a list of indicators of at-risk students; low attendance; low school continuation rates; low

academic performance; low involvement in school activities; anti-social behavior; negative attitudes toward school; high need for employment; inadequate family support; and higher involvement with the juvenile justice system.

Characteristics of students at-risk identified by Phlegar (1987) were retention in a grade or being a year older than others in the same grade; attendance and discipline problems; lower socio-economic and/or minority background; limited English proficiently; single parent or other unstable home factors; low value on completion of school; negative self-concept; drug/alcohol abuse, pregnant or parenting teen.

The general approaches to meeting the needs of children at risk have been: curriculum modifications; alternative programs; remedial instruction; parental involvement; pupil support services; community support service programs, and education for employment programs (Rodenstein, 1990).

In a meta-analysis of 326 studies of the efficacy of early intervention programs White (1985-86) found an average effect size of half of a standard deviation at immediate end-of-program. White concluded that there was little empirical evidence for the efficacy of the purported influential variables of parental involvement in the program or for the age at which the intervention begins. In view of this sobering conclusion this current review will emphasize more recent, since ca. 1985-86, reports and reviews.

Long Term Evaluations of Early Education Programs

Among the studies finding long term positive effects of early education programs on participants' educational attainments are Hebbeler (1985) and Barnett, Frede, Mobasher & Mohr (1987).

Lazar & Darlington (1982) found that 11 early childhood programs had positive long term effects on four criteria, school competence, developed abilities, children's attitudes and values, and family impact.

Barnett (1985) applied a cost benefits analysis to the Perry Preschool Program and obtained positive results. The program produced savings in elementary and secondary school costs, delinquency and crime, welfare costs, and increased earnings at age 19, projected lifetime earnings, but had greater higher education costs as more former preschoolers attended more college.

Farnworth, Schweinhart & Berrueta-Clement (1985), in another Perry Preschool Program study, found that early intervention and also school success reduced the likelihood of delinquency.

Evans (1985) contrasted urban high school minority students with differential preschool program histories and in general found no main long term effects for preschool programs.

In a longitudinal one year analysis of preschool programs, including Head Start, statistically adjusting for initial participant background and cognitive differences, Lee, Brooks-Gunn & Schnur (1988) found short term cognitive gains for the participants although they were still behind their peers after a year in the program. In a longitudinal follow-up of their previous one-year study (Lee et al., 1990) the effects were still apparent but not as strong as in the first year. It was concluded that the results suggested that the effect was a preschool effect rather than a Head Start per se effect.

Haskins (1989) also examined early intervention programs and summarized the effects of Head Start and experimental preschool programs and concluded that initial IQ and achievement test gains declined within a few years, the generally found Head Start fading effect.

Reynolds (1990) investigated the "fading" effect, the reasons for the often demonstrated decline in Head Start participants' intellectual performance after the second grade, and found that the effects of prekindergarten experience on third grade achievement were indirect and depended upon such intervening factors as entering kindergarten readiness, parental involvement, grade retention, and academic integration.

The impact of two types of preschool intervention in the Chicago public schools on subsequent elementary and high school retention, graduation, and achievement in reading and mathematics, was investigated by Naftchi-Ardebili, Rice, Perlman & Karp (1990). There were no significant preschool programs effects.

Follow Through

Kennedy (1978) reported on the Follow Through Planned Variation Study and found that only two of nine programs had significant positive effects. Both were structured programs, i.e., Direct Instruction Arithmetic and Reading (DISTAR), and Behavior Analysis, while three programs with sizeable negative

effects were all unstructured.

In another follow-up of Follow Through Becker & Gersten (1982) examined achievement test scores of low income fifth and sixth graders who had participated in three years of the DISTAR Follow Through program. Program participants generally scored higher in most test domains that non-participants.

Meyer (1984) evaluated the first three cohorts of DISTAR Follow Through children from a school in Brooklyn. Follow Through pupils compared to control pupils, had higher high school graduation rates, lower held back rates, lower dropout rates, higher college application rates, and higher ninth grade reading and math scores.

On the other hand, Powell (1986) reported on the Louisville Experiment which investigated the efficacy of four DISTAR classrooms, four DARCEE classes, four traditional classrooms, and two Montessori classrooms. Powell concluded that, by eighth grade, boys who had been in traditional or Montessori programs outachieved boys in the other programs. However, Powell also concluded that the studies provided little evidence for advocating one program over another and also that didactic programs may not produce long-term positive results unless they are followed by similar didactic programs in elementary school.

Titles I Compensatory Education

Carter (1984) reported the largest and most comprehensive study of Title I, the Sustaining Effects Study, primarily a study of compensatory education under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Carter concluded that Title I was effective for pupils who were only moderately disadvantaged but not effective for the most disadvantaged pupils.

Reviews of Literature of Effective At-Risk Children Cross-Age Teaching Programs

Focal reviews of literature of effective at-risk children programs have been reported by Slavin & Madden (1987, 1989), Spitz (1986), and Storfer (1990). Readers are encouraged to examine these sources to enhance their perspective on this issue.

Slavin & Madden (1987) in their review of 300 programs which

passed the Grant Dissemination Review Panel concluded that there were three categories of effective programs: continuous progress; individualized instruction; and cooperative learning. Among the continuous programs were DISTAR; Utah System Approach to Individualized Instruction (U-SAIL); PEGASUS; Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI); Project INSTRUCT; Goal-Based Educational Management System (GEMS); and Early Childhood Preventive Curriculum (ECPC). There were three individualized instruction programs: Matteson Four-Dimensional Reading Program; Andover's Individualized Reading System (AIRS); and Systematic Teaching and Measuring Mathematics (STAMM). There were only two cooperative learning programs: Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI); and Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC). Thus only 16 of the more than 400 total programs were seen as effective. Other widely used programs not evaluated above mentioned include: Bank Street College of Education; High Scope/Cognitively Oriented Curriculum; and Group-Based Mastery Learning. Principles of the effective programs include: instruction accommodating individual needs; maximizing direct instruction; and frequent assessment of student progress through a structured hierarchy of skills.

In a subsequent synthesis Slavin & Madden (1989) concluded that neither in-class models nor pullout programs are effective and then reviewed on a more individual program level: six kindergarten programs; five first grade prevention programs; six continuous progress programs; four cooperative learning programs; three remedial tutoring programs; and five computer-assisted programs. Interested readers are encouraged to examine the efficacy of these individual programs in idiosyncratic detail in Slavin & Madden. They concluded that the general principles of effective programs are; comprehensiveness, intensiveness, frequent assessment, and instruction adapted to individual needs.

Spitz (1986), in his review, identified a number of attractive programs including: Feuerstein's Instrumental Enrichment, in Israel; Portage, focusing on teaching parents; ABECEDARIAN; Early Training Project (Gray); and the Micro-Social Learning Environment (MSLE).

Storfer (1990) briefly discussed several relevant programs including: the long-stay residential nurseries of London; the early intervention (beginning before birth) Syracuse Project; and the

Gordon Northern Florida Project featuring parental education of instruction interactions beginning at three months and terminating at three years.

Tomlinson (1989), in his review of class size literature, concluded that rather than reducing class size, larger and better sustained achievement might be more practically and cost-effectively accomplished through: cross-age peer tutoring; better use of instructional technology; graded homework; more flexible instructional practice and grouping methods; improved proficiency at academic studying; year-round schooling; and better curricula and textbooks.

Also see Wasik & Slavin (1990) for a best-evidence synthesis of the efficacy of preventing early reading failure through one-to-one tutoring.

Recent Individual Programs

A promising, but expensive, pre-K to 3 comprehensive urban education reform plan, "Success for All," was reported by Slavin, Madden, Karweit, Livermon & Dolan (1988). The components of this program include: one-to-one tutoring; improved reading methods; frequent assessment; enhanced preschool and kindergarten programs; family support; and other interventions. This program enhanced pupils' language and reading skills and also was associated with fewer special education referrals. In a companion evaluative analysis Madden, Slavin, Karweit, Livermon & Dolan (1988) found: that Success for All preschoolers and kindergartners scored higher than controls on most language subtests; that first graders scored higher on the individually administered language tests but no differently on the California Achievement Test; and also that both second graders and third graders scored better on both sets of tests.

Another promising early education program is A Learning Environment Responsive to All (ALERTA), a multicultural, bilingual approach (Options and Opportunities, 1989).

An interesting school level instructional management at-risk intervention system called Consistency Management was sketchily reported by Freiberg, Prokosch & Treister (1990). This program "translated research in classroom management, instructional effectiveness, school climate, school effectiveness, and staff development into practical classroom and school applications." Com-

pared to five matched control elementary schools the intervention schools' mathematics, reading, and writing test scores were significantly improved from 1985-86 to 1987-88.

A derivative of ABECEDARIAN is Project CARE reported by Wasik, Ramey, Bryant & Sparling (1990). Two interventions, a home-based family education program, and a more intensive family education program combined with a center-based educational day-care program, were compared with a control group. Into these three groups 62 families were randomly divided, 24, 15, and 23, respectively. Children were tested at 6, 12, 18, 24, 30, 36, 42, 48, and 54 months. On all tests after the first testing the children of the family education combined with a center-based educational day-care program had higher scores on three cognitive ability tasks than children of the other two groups.

Conclusions

The literature indicates a variety of attractive interventions for at-risk children. Efficacious elements of the successful interventions include tutoring, cooperative learning, positive school climate, meeting individual differences, direct instruction, frequent assessment of pupil progress, instructional technology, graded homework, flexible instructional practices, year-round schooling, comprehensiveness, and intensiveness. These elements can be implemented individually or in combinations idiosyncratically in local programs.

REFERENCES

Barnett, W.S. (1985). Benefit-cost analysis of the Perry Preschool Program and its policy implications. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 7*, 333-342.

Barnett, W.S., Frede, E.C., Mobasher, H., & Mohr, P. (1987). The efficacy of public preschool programs and the relationship of program quality to efficacy. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 10*, 37-49.

Becker, W.C., & Gersten, R. (1982). A follow-up of Follow Through: The later effects of the Direct Instruction Model on children in fifth and sixth grades. *American Educational Research Journal, 19*, 75-92.

Carter, L.F. (1984). The Sustaining Effects Study of compensatory and elementary education. *Educational Researcher, 13*, 4-13.

Conger, J.J. (1988). Hostages to fortune. *American Psychologist, 43*, 291-300.

Evans, E.D. (1985). Longitudinal follow-up assessment of differential preschool experience for low income minority group children. *Journal of Educational Research, 78*, 197-202.

Farnworth, M., Schweinhart, L.J., & Berrueta-Clement, J.R. (1985). Preschool intervention, school success, and delinquency in a high-risk sample of youth. *American Educational Research Journal, 22*, 445-464.

Frieberg, H.J., Prokosch, N., & Treister, E.S. (1990). Turning around five at-risk elementary schools. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 1*, 5-25.

Garwood, S.G., Phillips, D., Hartman, A., & Zigler, E.F. As the pendulum swings. *American Psychologist, 2*, 434-440.

Haskins, R. (1989). Beyond metaphor: The efficacy of early childhood education. *American Psychologist, 44*, 274-282.

Hebbeler, K. (1985). An old and a new question on the effects of early education for children from low income families. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 7*, 207-216.

Kennedy, M.M. (1978). Findings from the Follow Through Planned Variation Study. *Educational Researcher, 7*, 3-11.

Lazar, I., & Darlington, R. (1982). Lasting effects of early education: A report from the Consortium for longitudinal studies. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 47*, (2-3, Serial No. 195).

Lee, V.E., Brooks-Gunn, J., & Schnur, E. (1988). Does Head Start work? A 1-year follow-up comparison of disadvantaged children attending Head Start, no preschool, and other preschool programs. *Developmental Psychology, 24*, 210-222.

Lee, V.E., Brooks-Gunn, J., Schnur, E., & Liaw, F.R. (1990). Are Head Start effects sustained? A longitudinal follow-up comparison of disadvantaged children attending Head Start, no preschool, and other preschool programs. *Child Development, 61*, 495-507.

Madden, N.A., Slavin, R.E., Karweit, N.L., Livermon, B.J., & Dolan, L. (1988). Success for All: First-year effects of a comprehensive plan for reforming urban education. American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, California.

Meyer, L.A. (1984). Long-term academic effects of the Direct Instruction Project Follow Through. *The Elementary School Journal, 84*, 380-394.

Naftchi-Ardebili, S., Rice, W.K., Jr., Perlman, C.L., & Karp, A.M. (1990, April). Effects of preschool on achievement, retention, dropping out, and graduation: A fifteen year study. American Educational Research Association, Boston, Massachusetts.

Options and Opportunities. (1989). *Phi Delta Kappan, 71*, 138-141.

Phlegar, J.M. (1987). *Good beginnings for young children: Early identification of high-risk growth programs that promote success.* Regional Laboratory for Educational Improvement of the Northeast and Islands, Andover, Massachusetts.

Powell, D.R. (1986). Effects of program models and teaching practices. *Young Children, 42*, 60-67.

Reynolds, A.J. (1990). Sources of fading effects of prekindergarten experience. American Educational Research Association, Boston, Massachusetts.

Rodenstein, J. (1990). Meeting the needs of children At Risk through statewide public policies and locally determined implementation strategies. Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction and the University of Wisconsin - Madison.

Rodriquez, J. (1990). Current policies and promising practices for At-Risk youth. *The Clearing House, 63*, 322-327.

Rothman, R. (1990, August 1). Study of 8th graders finds 20% at high risk of failure. *Education Week, 9*, 11.

Slavin, R.E., & Madden, N.A. (1987). Effective classroom programs for students at risk. Baltimore, Maryland: The Johns Hopkins University, Center for Research on Elementary & Middle Schools.

Slavin, R.E., & Madden, N.A. (1989). What works for students at risk: A research synthesis. *Educational Leadership, 46*, 4-13.

Slavin, R.E., Madden, N.A., Karweit, N.L., Livermon, B.J., & Dolan, L. (1988). Success for All: First-year outcomes of a comprehensive plan for reforming urban education. American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, California.

Spitz, H.H. (1986). *The raising of intelligence: A selected history of attempts to raise retarded intelligence*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Stipek, D., & McCroskey, J. (1989). Investing in children. *American Psychologist, 44*, 416-423.

Storfer, M.D. (1990). *Intelligence and giftedness*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Tomlinson, T.M. (1989). Class size and public policy: Politics and panaceas. *Educational Policy, 3*, 261-273.

Vasquez, J.A. (1990). Teaching to the distinctive traits of minority students. *The Clearing House, 63*, 299-304.

Wasik, B.H., & Slavin, R.E. (1990, April). Preventing early reading failure with one-to-one tutoring. American Education Research Association, Boston, Massachusetts.

Wasik, B.H., Ramey, C.T., Bryant, D.M., & Sparling, J.J. (1990). A longitudinal study of two early intervention strategies: Project CARE. *Child Development, 61*, 1682-1696.

White, K.R. (1985-86). Efficacy of early intervention. *Journal of Special Education, 19*, 401-416.

31

Measuring Implementation: Tools for Researchers

Marsha M. Sprague

One of the most difficult tasks in performing research on educational innovations is measuring the extent to which the innovation has been implemented. Without such a measurement, conclusions reached regarding differences (or lack of differences) in educational treatments must be regarded with skepticism. The reporting of outcomes alone is reminiscent of the Skinnerian "black box" approach to behavior: it is clear what the result is, but the process leading to the result is shrouded in mystery. Researchers may bring illumination into the black box by investigating the degree of implementation of an innovation, relating it to an analysis of outcomes.

This paper briefly outlines prior investigations into the nature of the implementation of innovations and summarizes major findings of implementation studies. The paper also describes five instruments that are currently in use that measure degree of implementation and gives examples of how they have been used in research studies.

Implementing Innovations

Prior to 1973, most research regarding educational innovation focussed on individuals and their reaction to change, or on the nature of the "change agent" - an expert consultant who brought about change (Waugh and Punch, 1987). However, after 1973 research studies were directed away from the individual and toward institutional adoption of change. They also focussed more on the implementation state described by Fullan (1983) rather than the initiation stage.

One of the first and largest studies of institutional change in education was due to a contract awarded to Rand Corporation by the U.S. Department of Education to review federally funded change programs. The study lasted five years and examined the uses to which "seed money" provided by the government had been put. Teacher change behavior was studied since "many analysts, ourselves included, believe that improved student out-

comes cannot be obtained in the long run without teacher change; accordingly, we considered teacher change to be a critical project outcome in its own right." (Berman and McLaughlin, 1978.)

Certain conditions were found to positively effect teacher change: strong principal support, practical, extended training, teacher observation in other classrooms, schools or districts, follow-up support, and teacher participation in decisions about innovations.

Three teacher characteristics were associated with change: verbal ability and sense of efficacy were positively associated with change, whereas years of experience were negatively associated with change (the more the experience, the less likely teachers were to change).

Despite these findings, researchers reached these pessimistic conclusions regarding change efforts:

— " 'Successful' projects have difficulty sustaining their success over a number of years."

—" 'Successful' projects are not disseminated automatically or easily, and their 'replication' in new sites usually falls short of their performance in the original sites" (Berman and McLaughlin, 1978).

Fullan and Pomfret confirmed these findings in 1977. Their studies indicated that high morale of teachers in a school, the active support of principals and superintendents, and opportunities for teachers to raise and discuss problems all increased the chances of successful implementation. They stressed, however, the personal cost to teachers of innovation in terms of time, difficulty and trauma involved. They suggested more attention to incentives for teachers.

Four studies followed which contributed more information regarding implementation:

(1) Huberman's study of the ECRI reading program (1981) examined the implementation of a reading program in one school as a case study. He found that the widespread use of this innovation resulted from the "quality and amount of technical assistance and sustained central office and building-level support" (p. iii).

(2) Stalling's (1980, 1981) program to improve the teaching of reading in secondary school classrooms consisted of four steps: pretest (observe teachers); inform (link theory and practice); guided practice (provide feedback and assess); and posttest (observe and provide feedback to teachers and trainers). She found that teachers trained in this manner were more likely to use the reading methods and that students of these teachers made

larger gains in reading achievement than those of non-trained teachers.

(3) Showers' work on the transfer of training built on the review of Joyce and Showers (1980) which identified basic components of training necessary for the transfer of skills learned in a workshop setting to the classroom. Showers (1983, 1984) experimented with using junior high teachers to provide feedback to each other during implementation efforts. She found that this type of peer observation and feedback aided greatly in implementing training in the classroom.

(4) Little's research on school norms and school success (1981, 1982,) showed that the degree of collegiality in a school influenced the willingness of teachers to implement change efforts. She found that schools whose teachers exhibited greater interaction among the faculty, in the form of talking about teaching, observing one another, planning together and teaching each other were more likely to implement changes.

In 1989 Joyce, Showers, Murphy and Murphy reported success in achieving large scale implementation of new teaching models in several schools across a poor, low-achieving school district. They attributed the success to the institution of collegial study teams, to training designed to insure that teachers acquired teaching skills during inservice sessions, to methods that effected transfer into the classroom, and to the nature of the teaching innovation (models that had proven records of student learning gains). They were able to correlate the degree of implementation of the new teaching models to amount of increase in student achievement.

Measuring Level of Implementation

Because of the interest in implementation of innovations emerging in the early 1970's, some researchers decided that innovation must be quantifiable in order to be studied. The Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at the University of Texas at Austin attacked the problem of measuring implementation from 1973 through 1977. Gene Hall, Susan Loucks, and William Rutherford, among others, selected classroom teachers as the primary unit of implementation (Hall and Loucks, 1977). They developed a framework for analyzing innovation adoption and

called it the Concerns Based Adoption Model. This consisted of three instruments: the Stages of Concern (SoC), the Levels of Use (LoU) and the Innovation Configuration Checklist (IConC) (Hall & Loucks, 1977).

The Stages of Concern instrument is a questionnaire which explores teachers' feelings about a given innovation. Seven kinds of concerns are identified that individuals experience as they undergo change. These concerns are predictable and hierarchical (Hord & Hall, 1986).

The responses of the subject on the SoC questionnaire are categorized into one of seven stages as follows: Stage 0, Awareness; Stage 1, Information; Stage 2, Personal; Stage 3, Management; Stage 4, Consequences; Stage 5, Collaboration; and Stage 6, Refocussing. The focus of this "vector" of the Concerns Based Adoption Model is on the feelings of teachers and their reaction to the innovation (Hord & Hall, 1986).

The Levels of Use framework was obtained from clinical experiences and case notes from change agents (Hall and Loucks, 1975). The framework consists of eight hierarchical levels ranging from 0) Nonuse to I) Orientation to II) Preparation to III) Mechanical Use to IV-A) Routine Use to IV-B) Refinement to V) Integration to VI) Renewal. At the lower stages the use is poorly coordinated and imitative in nature, while at the upper stages the user seeks to adapt the innovation to have the most impact on learners. The levels of use framework was tested in three longitudinal (two year) studies involving the innovations of team teaching, instructional modules, and science curriculum (Hall and Loucks, 1977). The studies validated the framework, and in addition concluded that most individuals tended to begin implementation at the Mechanical level of use and then moved to the Routine level of use, which could be the basis for later Refinement (Hall, 1977).

The Level of Use is assessed through the use of a focussed interview using a branching format with specific questions and follow-up probes (Loucks, Newlove and Hall, 1975). The interview is generic, in that it can be used for different innovations by identifying the basic characteristics of the innovation and assessing the interviewee's faithfulness to these characteristics (Hall and Loucks, 1975).

A variety of studies have utilized the Level of Use framework to study implementation efforts. Rutherford and Loucks used the framework to examine a new discipline approach in a junior high school in Texas (1979). At the end of the two-year study, a majority of teachers were using the new discipline approach at a routine level, although there were many non-users.

Stalling used the Levels of Use framework as one measure to evaluate her Classroom Management Staff Development Program (1981) in Putnam CountySchools, West Virginia. She found the largest number of teachers at the Routine use, with some still at the non-use stage. No teachers reached the upper stages of use.

The Innovation Configuration checklist was also developed at the University of Texas at Austin. Basic components of a successful implementation are identified, and teachers are rated on each component. Rating is based on interview and an observation and teachers are scored on a scale of 1-5 (1 being low) for each component. Hord and Hulling-Austin (1987) used this scale in a rural school that sought to implement a new math curriculum. Hosack-Curlin (1989) used both the Innovation of Configuration checklist consisted of 13 identified components of a successful writing process program.

McKibbin and Joyce (1980) also developed a participant observation scoring measure for implementation. This measure was used by Evans and Hopkins (1988) in the study of implementation of ideas from an inservice course in aesthetics. Evans and Hopkins used both this implementation score and the Levels of Use framework to assess teachers' level of implementation. The results obtained from these separate measures were very consistent (Evans and Hopkins, 1988). The greatest number of teachers (47%) were found to be operating at the Mechanical level of use, while 20% were at the Routine level and only 3% had moved to the Refinement level.

In her study of implementation of various models of teaching in Richmond County, Showers (1989) adapted the Levels of Use framework to include only five levels of use (plus a zero level of nonuse). She felt that the upper levels of use described by Hall and Loucks were inappropriate since they relied on adaptation and change of the innovation, whereas models used appropriately remain faithful to the original design (B. Showers, personal communication, October 15, 1990). Showers termed this new framework Levels of Transfer of the Innovation, and based it on teacher interviews, teacher logs (records of attempted use), and observation.

With the multitude of tools available for researchers, it is clear that implementation of innovations can be measured without difficulty. With this information at hand, it can be far more powerful to discuss implications about the true impact of educational innovations.

REFERENCES

Berman, Paul & McLauglin, Milbrey Wallin (1978). *Federal programs supporting educational change. Vol. VIII: Implementing and sustaining innovations* (Report No. R-1589/8HEW). Washington, DC: Office of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 159 289)

Evans, Marilyn & Hopkins, David (1988). School climate and the psychological state of the individual teacher as factors affecting the utilisation of educational ideas following an inservice course. *British Educational Research Journal*, 14, 211-230.

Fulian, Michael (1983). *Change processes and strategies at the local level*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 245 358)

Fullan, Michael & Pomfret, Alan (1977). Research on curriculum and instruction implementation. *Review of Educational Research, 50* (1), 121-184.

Hall, Gene E. & Loucks, Susan F. (1977). A developmental model for detrmining whether the treatment is actually implemented. *American Educational Research Journal, 14* (3), 263-276.

Hall, Gene E., Loucks, Susan F. and others (1975). Levels of use of the innovation: A framework for analyzing innovation adoption. *Journal of Teacher Education, 26* (1), 52-56.

Hord, Shirley M. & Hall, Gene E. (1986). *Institutionalization of innovations: Knowing when you have it and when you don't* (R&D Report 3220). Washington, DC: National Institute of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 276 103)

Hord, Shirley M. & Huling-Austin, Leslie (1987). Curriculum implementation: How to know if it's there (or not there). *Journal of Rural and Small Schools*, 1 (3), 23-26.

Hosack-Curlin, Karen (1988). Measuring the effects of a peer coaching project. New Orleans, LA: American Educational Research Association, (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED 303 883)

Huberman, M. (1981). *ECRI, Masepa, North Plains: A case study*. Andover, MA: The Network.

Joyce, Bruce & others (1989). School renewal as cultural change. *Educational Leadership, 47* (3), 70-77.

Joyce, Bruce & Showers, Beverly (1980). Improving inservice training: The messages of research. *Educational Leadership, 37*, 379-385.

Joyce, Bruce & Showers, Beverly (1983). *Power in staff development through research on training*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 240 667)

Little, Judith Warren (1982). Norms of collegiality and experimentation: Workplace conditions of school success. *American Education Research Journal, 19*(3), 325-340.

Little, Judith Warren (1981). *The power of organizational setting: School norms and staff development*. Los Angeles, CA: American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 206 745)

McKibbin, Michael D. & Joyce, Bruce R. (1980). *An analysis of staff development and its effects on classroom practice. The South Bay Project*. Boston, MA: American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 186 431)

Rutherford, William L. & Loucks, Susan F. (1979). *Examination of the implementation of a junior high school's new approach to discipline by longitudinal analysis of change in teachers' stages of concern and levels of use*. San Francisco, CA: American Educational Research Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 207 171)

Showers, Beverly (1989) *Implementation and change: An experiment in school improvement*. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Showers, Beverly (1984). *Peer coaching: A strategy for facilitating transfer of training*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 271 849)

Stallings, Jane and others (1980). *How to change the process of teaching basic reading skills in secondary schools. Phase II and phase III. Final Report*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 210 671)

Stallings, Jane A. (1981). *The secondary school teacher as an adult learner*. California: American Psychological Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 210 269)

Waugh, R.F. & Punch, K.F. (1987). Teacher Receptivity to System-wide Change in the Implementation Stage. *Review of Educational Research, 57*, 237-254.

PART IV

Mediated Reading Levels of Chapter I Third Grade Students

Sherry Kragler

Proper placement of students in any reading material is an ongoing educational concern. If the student is placed in a book that is too easy, s/he will not make optimum reading growth. Whereas, if the book is too hard, the reader will become frustrated and stop trying to read. Achieving this balance is a challenge for all but finding the right level for Chapter I, at-risk children becomes a vital issue. For not only is finding the right placement a problem but studies have shown that students placed in lower reading groups are receiving inadequate instruction. In general, these students read fewer words per day. When they do read, the emphasis is on oral pronunciation not reading for meaning (Allington, 1980; Allington, 1983; Allington, 1984; McDermott, 1976). Consequently, the placement decision is crucial because it not only impacts on the reading level of the child but also on the quality of instruction s/he receives. In order to achieve maximum reading growth, not only do the instructional practices need some adjustment but also the reading placement practices.

Assessment Practices Regarding Reading Placement

Currently, a student can be assessed and placed in a reading group based on information gained from a standardized achievement test, such as the Metropolitan Achievement Test; an informal reading inventory; a basal placement test; standardized reading tests, such as the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test; or other similar assessment procedures. These tests as well as informal reading inventories have established procedures for their administration and interpretation. While these procedures are necessary for reliability data, these procedures place the child in an artificial environment during the testing situation (Barr, 1990; Wozniak, 1975). A child's inability to function on a standardized test could be due to a variety of reasons, such as, lack of background knowledge; inadequate language development; inadequate reading skills; behavioral characteristics of the child; and/or other considerations. Because there is no reference for these scores, one cannot determine which of these is a factor in the student's score or how these scores relate to the student's reading performance in his/her class (Royer & Cunningham, 1981). Consequently, as teachers are aware, these tests help very little in planning instructional programs which would facilitate the child's learning (Myers & Lytle, 1984). Thus, the risk in utilizing these tests is that the student's ability and potential can be understood thereby offering

a limited view of the child's competence that will affect the type of teacher/student interaction within the reading group (Wertsch, 1984).

Dynamic Assessment

The dynamic assessment model seeks to provide a context for testing a student. The model is based on the interaction between the teacher and learner. The dynamic model helps the teacher identify types of student responses that facilitate learning as well as response types that inhibit learning. The model should also lead the way to a change in student behavior (Coiffi & Carney, 1983; Lidz, 1981). Essentially, the dynamic model assesses a student's zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). The zone of proximal development is defined as the "distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem (reading) and the level of potential development (reading) as determined through problem solving (reading) under direct guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Vygotsky's zone concept as measured by the dynamic assessment model allows for a more complete picture of the student than the static assessment allows. Not only does the examiner have an idea of the student's independent reading level but the examiner can gain an idea of the student's reading level in a learning situation. Of interest, is the impact of Vygotsky's zone concept as measured with the dynamic assessment model on reading placement levels of elementary students.

This student was designed to compare the effects of the dynamic and traditional testing models on reading placement levels of Chapter I students. The study, also, explored whether these students could benefit from basal instruction based on their reading placement level as indicated by the dynamic assessment model.

Procedures and Results

The study was conducted in an elementary school in a central Florida city. The subjects were 21 Chapter I third grade students who were reading on a first grade level as measured by the silent reading paragraphs of the Houghton Mifflin Informal Reading Inventory. Following this pretest, silent informal reading inventory passages at the third and fourth grade levels were determined

to be at the subjects' frustration level. These frustration level passages were used as the posttest measure. After this pretest, the students were randomly assigned to a control group which received a treatment based on the static paradigm while the experimental group was involved in a mediated procedure prior to the posttest. Throughout the study, student recall was used as the posttest measure. Goodman's (1971) retelling comprehension scores were used to judge the quality of the recall.

The mediated procedure for the experimental group consisted of an interactive dialogue between the researcher and students. Five vocabulary words from each passage were chosen to be the focus of the dialogue. The procedure for the mediation was the following: a) the word was read to the student in isolation and in context, b) the student attempted a definition, c) the student was guided through questions that helped them generate examples and nonexamples of the word, d) the student generated synonyms, antonyms, and a sentence. After the dialogue, the words were flashed to the student. (See Appendix A for an example.) The students read the passages once and then did a retelling of the passage.

The control group did repeated readings of the third and fourth grade passages followed by the story retelling.

The analysis of covariance was used to assess the effects of the dynamic procedures over the static procedures. The analysis of covariance design was used to statistically control any initial differences in the subjects which might have been present and which might have confounded the differences between the groups. The analysis of the retelling scores for the third grade informal reading inventory passage indicated a significant effect for this passage ($T=2.19$, $p < .05$) but did not show a significant effect for the fourth grade informal reading inventory passage ($T=1.57$, $p > .05$).

Mediated Basal Lesson

The second part of the study compared the effects of a mediated basal lesson to those of a traditional basal lesson. The basal story was at the fourth grade level which was two to three years above the students' current basal placement. Story recall was used as the posttest measure.

The experimental group received a mediated reading lesson. The vocabulary mediation followed the same procedure as in the first phase of the study. Following the vocabulary mediation, the

background was discussed among the students and purposes were established by the students. After reading the story once, the students did a story retelling.

The control group received the traditional lesson format. The vocabulary was introduced as suggested in the teacher's manual. The teacher built the background and purposes were set as indicated by the manual. The students did a story retelling after reading the story once.

The analysis of covariance was used to determine the effects of the mediated basal lesson. The main effects on the basal story was significant ($T=3.14, p < .05$). The experimental group averaged 9.6 story recall statements while the control group averaged 5.1 statements. The effect of the mediated lesson was to bring this fourth grade basal story within the students' instructional range.

Implications

Given the results of this and other studies (Dixon, 1986; Stanley, 1986), there is evidence for Vygotsky's zone concept as measured by the dynamic assessment model. These studies suggest that students have a wider range of functioning in reading than traditional placement indicates. The students have a "mediated" reading level. These mediated reading levels would be the highest level students could achieve successfully given adult support (Powell, 1984). When the subjects were given an informal reading inventory in the traditional manner, their instructional reading level ranged from a first to second grade level. Their frustration level ranged from the third to fourth grade level. Following the dynamic assessment of informal reading inventory passages, the students' instructional level ranged from second to third grade level. The frustration range also moved higher. Using the dynamic model, the students' zone, or range, of functioning shifted at least one year over the level indicated by the static model.

Vygotsky (1978) stressed the idea that instruction precedes development and leads development. The teacher can create more growth by providing support on higher level materials than we have given students to read because of the traditional placement procedures. By modeling reading behavior, asking leading questions, and engaging the students in a dialogue, the students' reading growth will be higher than both the traditional testing indicates and the traditional basal lesson allows. The key to the effectiveness of the mediated reading levels is the support of the teacher and the active engagement of the student in the reading

activity. In conclusion, by using the dynamic model, the teacher can arrive at a more accurate reading placement–a level that does not underplace students in reading material but places them at a level which would allow for maximum reading growth of the students.

References

Allington, R. (1980). Poor readers don't get to read much in reading groups. *Language Arts, 57,* 872-875.

Allington, R. (1983). The reading instruction provided readers of differing reading abilities. *Elementary School Journal, 5,* 548-559.

Allington, R. (1984). Content coverage and contextual reading in reading groups. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 6,* 85-96.

Barrs, M. (1990). THE PRIMARY LANGUAGE RECORD: Reflections of issues in evaluation. *Language Arts, 67,* 244-253.

Coiffi, G., & Carney, J. (1983) Dynamic assessment of reading disabilities. *The Reading Teacher, 36,* 764-768.

Dixon, L.A. (1986). An investigation of the zone of proximal development for reading placement. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1985). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 47,* 136A.

Goodman, Y., & Burke, C. (1971). *Reading miscue inventory manual: Procedure for diagnosis and evaluation* (pp. 113-120). New York: MacMillan.

Hollander, S., & Reisman, M. (1970). *Pupil placement tests.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Lidz, Carol (1981). *Improving assessment of schoolchildren.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

McDermott, R.P. (1976). Kids make sense: An ethnographic account of the interactional management of success and failure in one first grade classroom (Doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1976). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 38,*.1505A.

Myers, J., & Lytle, S. (1986). Assessment of the learning process. *Exceptional Children, 53,* 138-144.

Powell, W.R. (1984). Mediated (emergent) reading levels: A construct. In J.A. Niles (Ed.). *Thirty-third yearbook of the National Reading Conference* (pp. 247-251). Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference Inc.

Royer, J., & Cunningham, D. (1981). On the theory and measurement of reading comprehension. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 6,* 187-216.

Stanley, N.V. (1986). A concurrent validity study of the emergent reading level (Doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1986). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 47,* 1675A.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wertsch, J.V. (1984). The zone of proximal development: Some conceptual issues. In B. Rogoff and Wertsch (Eds.), *Children's learning in the "zone of proximal development"* (pp. 7-30). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Wozniak, R.H. (1980). Theory, practice and the "zone of proximal development" in soviet psychoeducational research. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 5,* 175-183.

PART V

From the Garden of Academus to Imaginative Planning for Teacher Education

Carolyn V. Spillman
Ann Berger
Marsha Sprague
Karen Nathan
Patricia Ford
Maureen Armour
Roy Mumme

University of South Florida
Fort Myers, Florida

FLORIDA EDUCATIONAL
RESEARCH COUNCIL

Breivogel Conference

April 11, 1991

Sherry Kragler

From the Garden of Academus to Imaginative Planning in Teacher Education

Once upon a time in the land of Greek legends, long before Helen of Troy was captured in a well-known story, she was taken captive as a child. A kindly man named Academus informed her brothers of her whereabouts and was rewarded with the most fertile and most productive of the olive gardens of the day. Later, Plato used this ever-bearing garden, called The Academy, as a fertile ground for stimulating the thinking of his students.

It is our intent to follow the lead of Plato and expose our students in teacher education to the garden of Academus and to experiences and challenges, that are currently only in our best intentions and imaginations.

Daring to be imaginative is often uncomfortable and especially so when the *status quo* has been in effect for as long as one can remember. As long as one can remember does not necessarily mean a long time, but often, it is long enough for tradition to have set in . . . long enough to expect those dreaded words, "This is the way it has always been done."

This team of teacher educators – university supervisors of elementary education interns and our dean – decided to be imaginative, to attempt some visionary dreaming for future changes, to be pro-active in seeking an infrastructure that will not only produce outstanding teachers but provide an academic garden with fertile topsoil for students and faculty alike.

In this paper, we will consider current efforts in teacher education, both in the literature and in our program at the University of South Florida, Fort Myers, in terms of current practices, recommended changes, and a few glimpses into a contemporary garden of Academus.

Team Approach Rationale

An exemplary teacher education program is dependent on the players functioning as a team. Currently, at USF, a central team of internship supervisors coordinates the efforts among all constituents involved with the intern supervision program: university faculty and supervisors, school district personnel, the community and teacher interns. Efforts include: student placements, expectations for students, schools and university, orientations, observations and evaluations, discussions, conferences, seminars, recommendations and inservice presentations.

This team of intern supervisors supports and practices the belief that communication (Pajak, 1990) is the key to greater accomplishments for everyone involved. Pajak identified many attributes relevant to effective communication and categorized these features according to: knowledge, attitude and skills. These features are relevant to an internship program in the following manner: through knowledge comes conflict resolution; attitudes give way to open and approachable discussions; skill enables participants to listen attentively. As communication is a vital focus of the internship team, two thirds of the supervisors have availed themselves of specialized training using verbal and non-verbal communication through Performance Learning Systems (1974). These skills focus on three areas of concentration: an individual's communication agenda, overcoming resistances to others, and problem-solving with decision-making control.

In addition to belief in complete communication, the supervision team meets regularly to discuss problems, programs, successes and to brainstorm new approaches to the teacher education program. It was only after the entire team made an inner commitment (Simpson, 1990) to meet faithfully that the strength of the team heightened. Regular meetings have allowed common problems to be dispelled quickly, thus freeing energies toward innovation or strengthening the existing program. Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Biehler, 1978) became a truism for the group. Deficiency needs gave way to growth needs.

Brainstorming, following the known methods for reaching greater depths of creativity, has brought about exciting and worthwhile seminars for students and university supervisors. One of the more noteworthy seminars was the combining of all levels of interns and then grouping a beginning intern with a junior and senior intern for structuring activities in communication skills (PLS, 1974). As the students gained knowledge and practiced various skills with each other, the supervisors came to the realization that future teachers must learn to work together so there will be carryover into the schools (Grumet, 1989).

Other profitable seminars with different level interns coming together for meaningful experiences have centered around the content areas of assertive discipline (Canter and Canter, 1976), cooperative learning (Johnson and Helubec, 1986), and critical thinking (Hammond, 1991).

The extreme complexity of the human personality keeps the ever cognizant internship team mindful of one of the major aims of teacher education: to prepare potential teachers who recognize that healthy self-esteem is paramount to achievement, both in

their own lives and that of their students. On this note and wanting to encompass innovation that is respected and helpful for teacher educators and interns, the supervisory team developed a process to assist each other as well as assist an intern who might have difficulty with the classroom experience. Each supervisor may call upon another supervisor to observe an intern, discuss situational alternatives or assist with placement changes. This intensive assistance program has given the team a support structure for students having difficulty. The guidance provided the whole team makes the difference between failure or success.

Another idea that emerged as the team brainstormed one day in our "garden" was the thought of changing or modifying the current university evaluation process of interns into a coaching and conferencing process. An intern who is near or at the height of internship expectations would benefit from collegial coaching (Garmston, 1987). Collegial coaching has four major goals: to refine teaching practices, deepen collegiality, increase professional dialogue and help teachers think more deeply about teaching. Many interns can move through a lesson much like an experienced teacher; they are knowledgeable and they are well-founded with instructional methodology. Collegial coaching for most interns would place the focus of supervision on growth as a profession, not a letter grade identifying proficiency of skill development.

Technical coaching (Garmston, 1987) might well be used for interns who are above average with teaching performance, but who need continued support with technical aspects and developing confidence. Technical coaching helps transfer training to classroom practice while deepening collegiality, increases a professional dialogue and gives teachers a shared vocabulary for discussing their craft. Again, focus is on professional growth rather than a letter grade. Technical coaching also could be used with different level interns in the event that two interns were together in the same classroom at the same time. The interns would gain professional proficiency from each other's strengths as well as benefit from the established collegiality.

A basic component to the process of coaching is conferencing; within conferencing lies the skill and attitude of effective communication as listed earlier by Pajak (1990).

When communication has reached the higher levels and is practiced effectively with coaching and conferencing, the probability exists for the development of a true mentorship (Cox, Daniel & Boston, 1985).

We know that Socrates was mentor to Plato and from this relationship evolved the meaning of the term mentor: a wise and trusted counselor who provides guidance and individual instruction to a younger protege. Using this definition, the function of the supervisor's role to the intern should be one of mentor.

What, then, is a true mentorship? According to Cox, Daniel and Boston (1985), it is a rare and privileged relationship that extends beyond the limits of a formal relationship. It is functionally diffusing and spills into other areas of the lives of both persons, enriching and leading toward more actualization and completeness as human beings. To expand the functionally specific role of supervisor to intern beyond the university years and into the beginning teacher years, using the skills of coaching and conferencing, enhances the probability of true mentoring.

In summary, the visions for continued teamwork among the internship supervisors are to structure coaching and mentoring among students and faculty with the purposes of support, growth, and efforts to stimulate, deepen and temper reflections and actions for fruitful todays and tomorrows.

Structure of Field Experiences and Supervision

When Plato and his followers entered the "Academy," they were immediately aware of the ever-so-straight lines of neatly laid olive plants. Each individual plant was granted its rightful amount of space and adequate measure of nutrients. The resources of the land obviously met the needs; but resources alone were not sufficient. Academus had known that if a garden were to flourish, it must have an organized plan, a structure for growth. He recognized that seasons or stages were necessary for the live plant to grow to maturity. He knew, that for his garden to flourish year after year, generation after generation, there must be the continued presence of fertile soil to nurture his plants. For the soil to remain strong, the nutrients must be replenished. Changes must occur, or the land would become old and used up.

As a productive garden has a plan or structure, so must all credible teacher education programs. The current structure of the University of South Florida program provides for four seasons or levels of growth. One season leads naturally to the next. The first season begins by guiding the student from a world of general studies into the specialized world of educational study. The focus of the student's life begins to change; the student's identity begins

to undergo a transformation. Using an integrated curricular approach this first season need not exist in isolation. Educational overview courses could be available early in training, possibly at a junior college level.

Specialized education courses and weekly seminars take the form of a vine that is interwoven throughout the remaining three levels of internship. The academic content must be flexible and based upon the needs and interests of the interns. Theory or content must clearly connect to the practice of teaching. As the elements of nature exist as a unified interdependent whole, so do the many aspects of a teacher education program.

As the intern first prepares to leave the university setting for the public school classroom setting, it is important for the program faculty to analyze the total range of school and classroom environments present in the community. Communities are becoming more diverse. Schools are no longer different. With the development of the magnet school concept, one may discover, on investigation, a school of performance arts, a school of open education, a science or math school. One must analyze the local educational resources. The greater the range of school environments present, the greater the resource pool for the teacher education program. The richer the soil, the more productive the garden. Experiencing a variety of school environments will help the intern find the soil (or philosophy) in which he or she is suited.

It is during the second season of growth or training that the interns are introduced to their first classroom environment. Spending one day a week in a public school classroom, students develop an awareness of classroom routines, learn simple clerical tasks, begin the process of establishing and maintaining a rapport with children, observe techniques of effective teaching, and implement already-prepared lesson plans with individuals or small groups of children. With the start of the second season, the objective of the teacher education program comes clearly into focus. The garden plan becomes clear; the seeds have been planted.

During the next level of internship, the interns jump headlong into a rapid growth period. They do this by participating in a primary and an intermediate classroom placement, each extending for a period of six weeks. Students spend a total of twelve hours weekly in the classroom with children. It is during this period that interns experience "becoming" teachers. They are busy planning, scheduling, and implementing their own integrated lessons. They are developing and utilizing a variety of materials for those lessons. They are practicing the skills of effective teaching and

classroom management daily. Communication skills are also developed as the intern interacts with students, parents, classroom teachers, and university supervisors. If one thinks of the entire internship experience as one continuing lesson plan, one might see this level as the guided practice segment of that plan. Through observation, modeling, and practice, teachers begin to emerge. As one walks through the garden of Academus at the end of the third season, one finds that it is rich with blossoms.

The fourth and final season finds the intern entering a full-time classroom placement. Interns are given a choice of grade level. By allowing for choice, interns are doing what they want rather than what they are required.

Diversity and choice are characteristics of a modern society. People choose occupations, religions, foods, leisure time activities. As educators we know that when people have choices, they are more motivated.

By now the interns have developed strong root systems or foundations for continued growth. Their knowledge and experience bases are secure. This is the season for assuming full responsibility in the classroom. They are diagnosing needs, planning and implementing instruction, evaluating progress and giving clear and immediate feedback to both students and parents. They continue functioning as "full-time" teachers for a period of six weeks. Indeed, at the end of this six-week period, the fruit of the garden of Academus is ripe.

Supervision is a key component to the University of South Florida Teacher Education Program. The classroom teacher and the university supervisor, along with the intern, comprise the supervision team. The supervisors' job is to provide a model, to guide, to motivate and to give clear feedback and evaluation to the intern. They care for and nurture the intern. They are coaching staff. They are mentors. The continual daily and weekly interchange among these team members will provide the intern with the rich fertile soil necessary for growth.

As we walk through the garden of Academus at the end of the fourth season, we now see the fruits of our harvest. Our students are teachers, complete with certificate in hand. Yet educational growth must not end. The vision for change now becomes clear. The role of the teacher education program must continue through the beginning teaching program and beyond. The mentor relationship is a precious one. By continuing the relationship, we allow for continued growth throughout one's professional life. We encourage change. We renew the resources in the soil that allow the garden to be plentiful, generation after generation.

The "academy" had a structure – a plan. It was a garden dependent on seasons or levels of growth, a garden of fertile soil rich with resources. It was a garden ever changing. So, too, does the contemporary garden have a plan, a structure, levels of growth and a vision for the future.

Integration of Coursework

As Plato and his followers strolled through the gardens of Academus, they sought to discover the meaning of life and to understand the world around them.

The mission of education has not changed a great deal since these early academics: it is still to help students make sense of the world they encounter.

One of the ways that early educators organized the world in order to study it was into different curricular areas: basic sciences, for the purpose of discovering reality; symbolic studies, to describe and communicate knowledge; developmental studies, to provide interpretive maps by which we can understand our cognitive and aesthetic encounters.

It is obvious that these processes are completely interdependent and provide a way to make sense out of the world. However, as time went on these different curricular areas became ends unto themselves and excluded study of other areas, resulting in the accumulation of bits and pieces of knowledge, none of which helped illuminate other bits and pieces.

Today a movement in education is to reunite these different curricular areas by integrating curriculum. Teachers are currently being trained to tie the curricular areas together through the use of overarching themes. This provides meaningful experiences by tapping into the students' natural tendency toward "schematic networking" (Anderson, 1985). As Madeline Grumet (1989, p. 16) writes, "Working through the medium of the curriculum, the accomplished teacher is able to express knowledge about the world and to make that knowledge open to the participation and interpretation of students."

Howey (1990, p. 25) points out that there is also an increased focus of teacher educators on ways to "provide some coherence and continuity to programs of teacher preparation." The content in any teacher education program is vast, controlled by certification and graduation requirements, and finally by traditional thought of what teachers "need to know." It is difficult for the student of teaching to make connections and see interdependence

of the different courses. Howey expresses the need to establish "core concepts and central experiences throughout the program in order that students might build schemata to guide their thinking as well as actions about teaching and learning; the goal would seem to be continually to build from isolated skills and rule-bound understandings to dispositional patterns of thinking and acting." Integrating courses insures that prospective teachers are not only being taught sound pedagogical methodology but are seeing such practice modeled by their university mentors.

How might an integrated curricular block operate? Pinar (1989, p. 11) suggests:

> For instance, rather than the conventional child development psychology course, an "Experience of Childhood" course drawing upon undergraduate knowledge in arts and sciences could be developed. It would include readings in developmental psychology, but also in the history of childhood, in fictional accounts (both novels and poems) of growing up, as well as political and economic analyses of the family, children and schooling.

The potential benefits for students involved in this type of course would be enormous. The depth of meaning accrued about the experience of the child would extend to other courses and into the teaching internship. Because of the integrated nature of the coursework, different forms of presentation could be incorporated.

Pinar suggests the use of large lecture sections with intense small group workshop experiences. Because of the large blocks of time that could be allocated (being the equivalent of two or three "regular" courses) there would be an opportunity to engage in more project-oriented, hands-on experience.

The benefits for the student of teaching would be equalled if not exceeded by the benefits for the university professors who would teach these integrated courses. Integration of various subjects involves collaboration in planning and possible team teaching in presenting the classes. Judith Warren Little (1982) and others have written of the advantages of "joint work" in building collegiality and fostering personal and professional growth. Sharing ideas, exploring new options and providing synergy are at the heart of real innovation.

It is significant that Plato did not wander his garden alone: he took his colleagues and his students with him, in order that they might nourish one another.

Program Faculty Involvement

All tillers of the soil know that diversity is essential for a garden's optimal growth and pleasing design.

Similarly, teacher education requires diversity to produce the synergy needed for the regeneration of our profession. Program faculties, composed of University faculty and intern supervisors, contain the variety of elements from which can rise an abundant growth of ideas and practices.

Though Goodlad (1990) found, in a representative sample of colleges and universities, "few faculty groups ebulliently engaged in renewing their teacher education programs," this was balanced by large numbers of students excited about becoming teachers, and faculty members willing to work hard to help them reach their goals. Howey's (1990) case studies suggest "a high degree of altruism and pride among faculty who teach in elementary teacher preparation programs."

How can this energy and positive affect be channeled into synergy, and how can diverse backgrounds, theories, and opinions blended into productive, smoothly flowing processes rather than wasteful clashes? We need new ways in which members of the university community can together work on ever-present questions about the goals, content, and procedures of our programs. Many universities have developed new organizational structures (Yinger and Hendricks, 1990), often requiring students and faculty to take on new roles and responsibilities as collaborators, with communication the key ingredient.

Every structure must be site-specific, designed to fit a unique university environment. Burstein and Cabello (1989) described a teacher training model in which faculty meet for a full-day seminar at least once a semester. At USF, a semiannual convocation of program faculty and senior (level 3) interns could provide a unifying sense of professional commitment as well as the sharing of educational theory and practice. Such a conference centered on a theme with special relevance to our academic community could give direction to seminars and field experience. Participants would later report to Level 1 and 11 interns, who would gain not only information but the excitement of looking forward to their own participation as seniors.

Another format for communication might consist of networks of ten to fifteen interns, professors, and supervisors, meeting regularly to address issues of concern. For example, interns sometimes encounter a significant difference between methods learned

in class and those specified by the school to which they are assigned (Goodlad, 1990), yet seldom have an opportunity to explore its ramifications. (The desirability of involving classroom teachers is clear, though sometimes difficult in terms of logistics.) Networking would enable members to experience and benefit from the interrelatedness of faculty and student, theory and practice, and curricular content.

An informal structure for meeting these goals could be a pairing system involving mentors or peers. Many arrangements are possible: peer pairs could be formed among students who share curricular interests, or faculty members could be given names of students for whom they would serve as mentors. This provides interns the security of a specific individual to relate to without a formal meeting structure.

Growth and change are exciting, uncomfortable, and necessary if we are to progress toward our goal of renewing teacher education. The process requires resources: time and money are in short supply; fertile minds, powerful imaginations, and diversity of experience exist in abundance in our university community today. From these strong roots can come the bright, green growth of renewal.

Relationships among University, Schools, Teachers, Interns, and Community

In our relationships among all those responsible for and dependent upon quality teacher education, we desired to cultivate not only a contemporary garden, but a visionary collaborative garden, filled with the latest technological advances in both research and communications. The first seeds of that visionary garden were planted at a meeting of seventeen creative minds representing the university, public school administration, principals, teachers, interns, and community. This group was asked to dream of the best teacher education program possible for the direct benefit of our community. From that initial meeting came a desire to form a collaboration that would focus on making these dreams come true.

The initial meeting focused on three predetermined areas of common concern: 1) A role model for the "perfect" communication system between the university, superintendent, principals, supervising teachers, teaching interns, and the community; 2) A working collaboration for being both nurturers (of future and current teachers) and change agents (on the forefront of educational research and professionalism); 3) A consideration of

"Professional Development Elementary Schools (Holmes Group, 1986; Meek, 1988; Yinger & Hendricks, 1990), where the university could focus many of its interns and research.

Keeping in mind the five dimensions that influence the opportunity for successful professional learning cultures to emerge (Clift, Veal, et al., 1990), there was a great attempt made to predetermine the parity of leadership, the neutrality of the meeting space, the uniqueness of the individuals' contributions, the interpersonal relationships among the individuals, and the desire that the resultant synergy would lead us to some success.

The ensuing discussion was rich with ideas, many of them based on recent research, and some of them quite visionary. The two constants throughout the discussion were "communications" and "technology." Our developing bond was the recognition and acceptance that no one entity alone could accomplish the dreams of the group, yet together our possible accomplishments appeared staggering.

The apex of our visionary ideas was a "Collaborative Entrepreneurial Institute" housed in a "vanguard technological facility." Here would evolve a sharing among the schools, the university, and the community of the responsibilities of preservice and inservice teacher education. This would both fill the gaps and prevent duplication that now is thought to exist. Teacher education would become an ongoing experience. In this vanguard facility would be housed technology capable of providing instant communication throughout our entire collaborative network. Collaborative actions research projects (Clift, Veal, et al., 1990) would be encouraged, valued, and supported by the schools, university, and community. And it would be a place where all parties would physically come together, thus providing each with more realistic expectations of the other (Bracey, 1990). Along these lines, it would sponsor a "camp" for one week each semester where teachers, interns, supervisors, administrators, and community representatives would come together as equals to discuss goals, philosophies, research, frustrations, achievements, and . . . children. Also from this institute would come more accessible SCATT, Suncoast Area Teacher Training, a communications skills training program currently being provided as a choice at the university.

Perhaps not visionary, but brand new to our community was the idea of professional development schools. These schools would be chosen by the collaborative and would reflect the diversity of our populace (Pinar, 1989). Levels one, two, and three interns

would be in these schools working with master cooperating teachers and supervised by the team of university supervisors during their training. This provision for "continuity of care" (Katzenmeyer, 1990) would be provided. These schools might be selected on a rotating basis every two or three years in order to allow for both equality and diversity. Prospective interns and cooperating teachers might interview each other in order to "match" good working relationships, especially in regard to common philosophies.

At this point our collaborative is in its infancy, yet we believe our baby steps are phenomenal; especially when compared to what it has taken years to accomplish as individuals. None of these dreams could be accomplished in today's complex society by individuals. But building on our relationships with each other will allow us to meet challenges in teacher education with a powerful collective creative mind determined to actively seek ways to make dreams realities.

Research Network

The University, through its role in the community as the academic and research leader, must provide the training ground and stimulation for research questions and answers among its students, faculty, and constituents. Teachers, graduate students, and interns, often considered less than ardent researchers, are in the position to pose the research questions, to collaborate with researchers in planning designs and to assist in data collection. "When teacher educators begin to embrace rather than eschew research on their own programs, perhaps they will begin to resolve their collective identity crisis" (Kagan, 1990, p. 51).

Action research is a "staff development process which advances professional inquiry, improves education, and promotes teacher development" (Miller and Pine, 1990, p. 56). Teachers know the right questions to ask, they have access to the students and school populations, they can and should have opportunities to interpret research findings. Such action research can happen when the universities and staff development services provide technical assistance, give some form of credit, and provide a research atmosphere that values teachers' hypotheses and plans for trying out ideas. In the wonderful world of Academus' garden, teachers would be given release time from teaching loads for discussion and investigation of research interests.

The university can play a coordinating role in a collaborative

research network. The establishment of a research network, on paper, might be the first step. It is conceivable that research goals might be established for two- or three-year periods and all participants in the teacher education network could be involved in answering questions that relate to the goals. University professors could lend expertise to sources of current research in the areas of interests, graduate students could pursue these areas for theses and term papers; undergraduate students and teachers in field may pose questions to the network for possible study, as well as design and carry out action research projects. Regular research symposia could be the vehicle for dissemination and discussions of findings; scheduled brainstorming events also might provide verification of results and veracity of data to teachers and students engaged in research.

If we were operating in the garden of Academus today with a collaborative research network in place among schools and the university, the three strands of research for this group would be:

1. How do children learn to be happy and productive?
2. How do teachers learn to engage children in experiences that lead to happiness and productivity?
3. How do teacher educators, school administrators, and staff development personnel plan programs and experiences that will lead teachers toward teaching for happiness and productivity?

These strands of research could form the kernel of significant research over the next few years from various disciplines and fields. Conceivably, educators, practitioners, and others with expertise from the fields of psychology, medicine, neurology and social sciences could join forces with teachers, professors of education, school administrators and students to systematically study the basic questions about how children learn and how teachers teach.

In summary, teacher education programs, even at the undergraduate level, should value questioning, seeking answers, and sharing results so that students, teachers and administrators feel a part of a research network. Such a network would:

1. provide an atmosphere of professional inquiry into educational issues and problems,
2. strengthen the credibility of faculty and teachers,
3. provide on-site, ongoing experience for adjunct and junior faculty and prepare them for competitiveness in tenure and promotion processes, and
4. involve teachers and students in meaningful research that could impact teaching practices.

Lanier and Featherstone (1988) stated:

"We are aware of the chasm between such educational research and life in classrooms . . . We envision a day when many classroom teachers will engage in research, too, when the existing status lines between university people and school faculty will get erased . . . " p. 21

If the garden is to exist, a research network must be a part of it.

Conclusion

The "garden metaphor," as we have utilized in this paper, with its rhetoric of schooling as "leisurely growth" (our word "school" is from the Greek schole: leisure); with its imagery of fertility, flourishing, flowering, and fruitiveness – expresses the oldest and deepest commitments in Western educational thought and practice. Moreover, it bespeaks the noblest ideals of democracy – the ideals of individual development, of freedom, of equality, of brotherhood/sisterhood, and of social justice.

But less we forget, it has, since Roman and Medieval times, been challenged by a conflicting conception – the "racecourse metaphor." For our noun "curriculum" is a direct adoption from the Latin curriculum: racecourse, a running. Moreover, in the 20th century its imagery of competition, struggle, and survival of the fittest has led to schooling as a "rat-race" of "cut-throat" competition for grades, grade point averages, test scores, prizes, awards, scholarships and other awards for competition in a "K-12 marathon."

But these two metaphors present us with a profound dilemma, for which the alternatives are: (1) our trying to hold to both simultaneously – an irrational, schizoid choice for which the traditional resolution is a retreat to an "ivory tower" (another metaphor) of irrelevance and indifference; and, (2) our effecting a personal and professional choice between the "garden" and the "racecourse."

It is urged here that the "garden" is the only responsible choice for a more rational, humane, successful, and democratic academia.

References

Anderson, Richard C. (1985). Role of the reader's schema in comprehension, learning, and memory. In *Theoretical models and processes of reading* edited by Harry Singer and Robert Ruddell. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

Biehler, Robert F. *Psychology applied to teaching.* Houghton Mifflin (3rd Edition). (1978).

Bracey, G.W. (1990). Rethinking school and university roles. *Educational leadership.* 65-66.

Burstein, N.D., and B. Cabello (1989). Preparing teachers to work with culturally diverse students: A teacher education model. *Journal of teacher education,* 40, No. 5. 9-16.

Cantor, Lee, Cantor, Marlene. *Assertive discipline* (1976).

Clift, R., Veal, M.L., Johnson, M., & Holland, P. (March/April, 1990). Restructuring teacher education through collaborative action research. *Journal of teacher education,* 52-61.

Cox, June, Neil, Daniel, Boston, Bruce (1985). *Educating able learners.* University of Texas Press.

Fullian, M.G., Barrie Bennett, and Carol Rolheiser-Bennett (1990). Linking classroom and school improvement. *Educational leadership,* 133-19.

Garmston, Robert (1986). How administrators support peer coaching. *Peer collaboration for instructional effectiveness.* Performance Learning Systems.

Goodlad, John (1990). Better teachers for our nation's schools. *Phi delta kappan, 72 (3), 185-194.*

Grumet, Maceine (1989). Generations: Reconceptualist curriculum theory and teacher education. *Journal of teacher education,* 40 (1) 13-17.

The Holmes Group. (1986). *Tomorrow's teachers.* East Lansing, MI: Author.

Howey, Kenneth R. (1990). Research about teacher education: Programs of teacher preparation. *Journal of teacher education,* 40 (6), 23-26.

Johnson D.W., Johnson R.T. and Helubec, Edith Johnson. *Circles of learning: Cooperation in the classroom.* (Revised Edition) Prentice Hall (1986).

Kagan, D. (1990). Teachers' workplace meets *The Professors of Teaching:* A chance encounter at 30,000 feet. *Journal of teacher education,* 41, No. 5, 46-53.

Katzenmeyer, William (1989). What's it all about, Alfie?" Address to College of Education Faculty, University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida.

Lanier, J.E., and J. Featherstone (1988). A new commitment to teacher education. *Educational leadership,* 46, No. 3, 18-22.

Little, J.W. (1982). Norms of collegiality and experimentation: Working place conditions of school success. *American educational research journal,* 19 (3), 325-340.

19. Meek, A. (1988). On teaching as a profession: A conversation with Linda Darling-Hammond. *Educational Leadership,* 15.

Miller, D.M., and G.J. Pine (1990). Advancing professional inquiry for educational improvement through action research. *Journal of staff development,* 11, No. 3, 56-61.

Pajak, E. (1990). Dimensions of supervision. *Educational leadership.* 78-81.

Project Teach (1974). Performance Learning Systems.

Pinar, William F. (1989). Research about teacher education. *Journal of teacher education,* 40 (1), 9-12.

Simpson, Grant (1990). Keeping it alive: Elements of school culture that sustain innovation. *Educational leadership.* 34-37.

Yinger, R.J. & Hendricks, M.S. (1990). An Overview of Reform in Holmes Group Institutions. *Journal of teacher education,* 24.

The Middle School Instructional Practices Scale Orange County Public Schools

by
Roberta Thomas
Gene Pickler
Mary Jane Sevick

School Improvement Model: Collaborative Support for Initiating, Enhancing, and Increasing Effective Instructional Practices at the Middle School Level

Introduction

In the Orange County Public Schools, a longitudinal study of the implementation of the middle school model has been conducted; this is the fifth year of the evaluation and the fourth year since the implementation of the middle school model. The middle school model was implemented in the 1987-1988 school year.

Beginning in the 1987-1988 school year, the evaluation plan included an interview with each of the core-academic teams in the 18 middle schools. The Levels of Use of an Innovation (Loucks, Newlove, & Hall, 1975) interview methodology was incorporated into the interviews conducted in the 1987-1988 school year; the innovation or change being investigated was the collaborative process of "teaming." An analysis of these data indicated that middle school teaming is consistent with theory underlying other innovations. When teaming is first implemented, teachers are concerned about the day to day activities relative to the team; later these behaviors become habitual. Only after teaming behaviors become habitual are the teams able to focus on instruction, especially the interdisciplinary nature of instruction required at the middle school, and to tailor instruction to meet the needs of students. The interview results indicated that only 15% of the teams (i.e., 21 of the 131 teams) had matured enough to tailor instruction to meet the needs of students.

The 1988-1989 evaluation addressed middle school administrators' perceived importance and implementation of the 33 middle school standards that were developed during the planning phase. Although perceived to be important, three curriculum and instruction standards were reported not to be fully implemented by

75% of the administrators. These standards pertained to implementing the corridor curriculum which involves community members and community interests, using teaching strategies that reflect the middle school design, and teaching interdisciplinary units.

A review of the 1988-1989 middle school team-interview data suggested reasons for reporting lower levels of implementation for certain curriculum and instruction standards. The data indicated that teams at each middle school (18) reported being overwhelmed by meetings, paperwork, large classes, and discipline problems which may have directed their attention away from focusing on middle school instruction (e.g., teaching strategies that reflect the middle school design).

During the 1989-1990 school year, the interview included an investigation of methods of instructional collaboration. Methods of instructional collaboration were operationally defined as the following:

RANDOM REINFORCEMENT: A teacher is aware of a concept, skill, topic, etc., that the students have studied in another class and makes reference to it or uses it as an example in the course of teaching a lesson within his/her class.

SKILL REINFORCEMENT: A teacher is aware of a skill that another teacher has taught and incorporates ways for students to use it in his/her class. The teacher does not teach the skill but does provide opportunities for students to apply it in a different subject context.

SKILL INSTRUCTION COLLABORATION: Two or more teachers determine an area of skill emphasis needed by their students and then jointly plan and implement instructional activities within their classes to address the skill.

SUBJECT-CONTENT INTEGRATION: Two or more teachers identify units or topics within their subject content that are related and then jointly plan and implement lessons which take advantage of the relationship (e.g., the story of Johnny Tremaine is studied in English while the history class is studying the revolutionary war).

INTERDISCIPLINARY UNIT: The team teachers develop and implement a unit of study based upon a central theme. Whole team and individual class activities are conducted to support the unit.

Using these definitions which were provided on a card to each member of the team, the interviewees commented about the various activities IN which they had been involved. The results indicated that teams were less likely to report using skill instruction collaboration, subject-content integration, and the interdisciplinary unit; they were more likely to report using random reinforcement and skill reinforcement.

These data obtained over three years have been the basis for directing focus of the middle school evaluation to look more closely at instructional practices. During the 1989-1990 school year, work began to develop a means of measuring effective instructional practices at the middle school level. From a review of the literature and a professional review by a team of experts, 14 domains of effective instructional practices appropriate for the middle school level were identified. This knowledge became the foundation for the development of the Middle School Instructional Practices Scale (MSIPS). Prior to the development of this instrument, knowledge of practices at the middle school level was implied; however, a document specifying which practices were effective in addressing the needs of middle school students and to ensure that the skills were consistent with the Orange County Public Schools middle school philosophy did not exist.

The MSIPS was designed for the purpose of self-assessment by the interdisciplinary middle school teams; training in the use of the instrument takes place before the self-assessment is administered. In order to complete the assessment, teams collaborate among the membership and with the respective grade-level coordinator (administrator). The resulting profiles represent an administrative and instructional collaborative effort; the resulting action plans, which are steps to address the deficiencies identified by the profiles, represent the ownership by interdisciplinary teams in the improvement of their instructional practices.

A pilot program for the implementation of the MSIPS was implemented in the fall of the 1990-1991 school year. Three middle schools are involved in the pilot program. This spring a staff development program to address the identified needs reported on the MSIPS profiles will be implemented. Next year, the remaining middle schools will be incorporated into the MSIPS process for school improvement.

This presentation will address the data obtained from the three pilot schools as well as a review of the historical and future perspective presented here. All assessment instruments will be made available to participants.

Middle School Instructional Practices Scale
Instructions For Use

The Middle School Instructional Practices Scale (MSIPS) was developed to describe instructional practices as perceived by team members and school administrators. It was developed from a thorough review of process-product literature pertaining to effective instructional practices for middle grades students. "Process product" refers to specific teacher behaviors that result in desirable student outcomes.

In the rating scale, fourteen conceptual areas are addressed:

1. Introduction of formal academic disciplines at the appropriate level
2. Accommodating developmental diversity
3. Essential skill focus (remediation, development, introduction)
4. Promoting higher order thinking processes
5. Practical application/curriculum relevance
6. Instructional methods and strategies
7. Contemporary instructional practices
8. Success-oriented focus
9. Lesson extension
10. Communication about student progress
11. Instructional materials
12. Developing student responsibility and independence
13. Grouping practices (within the team)
14. Grouping practices (within the classroom)

These areas represent the literature-review information as it has been interpreted into the OCPS middle school philosophy.

One rating scale is to be completed for each team using the following procedure:

1. The grade-level coordinator and team members will review the rating scale and read the directions thoroughly.
2. The grade-level coordinator will conduct regular observations of the teams for the assigned grade level.
3. The team members will meet to discuss which ratings will

best describe how their team functions. They will complete the rating scale (i.e., one for each team in the grade level.)

4. The grade-level coordinator will complete a second rating scale (i.e., one for each team at the grade level).
5. The grade-level coordinator will meet with the team members to discuss the ratings and to determine the final rating (i.e., one for each team at the grade level).
6. A copy of the combined rating is made for school use and the original is returned to Roberta Thomas, Senior Manager for Program Evaluation, Building 200, Administrative Center.

To complete the rating scale, it is important that all respondents consider the scale to be a way of reporting a description of how evident the practices are with respect to the 14 areas. The "from" statement represents a lower level of the conceptual area observed; the "to" statement represents the ideal level of the conceptual area observed. The reporting of a lower level of any conceptual area is not a negative reflection on the team; it merely means that some areas receive lower levels of emphasis than others. The descriptive statements indicated by the double asterisk sign (**) represent statements that further describe the "to" situation; they are not prerequisites for the "to" condition to exist. The descriptive statements are not ranked in a hierarchical order. They are all desirable practices which support the "to" statement. The rating scale is located at the bottom of the page. There is one for each conceptual area. To rate the conceptual area, the rater(s) should read the "from" statement, then read the "to" statement, and then read the descriptors of the "to" statement which are designated by the double asterisk. Depending on how the conceptual area is perceived, the rater(s) should rate the conceptual area from "rarely practiced" to "extensively practiced."

Introduction of Formal Academic Disciplines at the Appropriate Level

From: **Subject content is taught without regard to the developmental level of middle school students.**

To: **Subject content is presented at a pace and degree of complexity that reflects an awareness of middle school students' developmental characteristics and needs.**

** The amount of time spent on a subject varies according to the students' needs. (Teachers experiment with the use of time and resources to best serve student needs.)

** Teachers organize instruction so that it conforms to the varying attention spans of young adolescents.

** More accurate expectations of students are gained through repeated interactions with them.

** Teachers teach strategies of learning as well as subject content.

** Teachers teach how to identify key aspects of a problem and strategies to arrive at solutions.

** Teachers demonstrate the need to bridge the gap between what is learned from manipulatives and what is learned from written, symbolic materials.

** Teachers provide visual examples of the concepts being studied.

** Teachers check previously learned concepts for accuracy before they superimpose new learning on the student.

** The readiness of students for the new material is continuously taken into account.

** An overview of the new lesson is used to orient students to significant and/or new vocabulary.

** The teacher varies the pace of instruction in the classroom through the use of a variety of methods (lecture, audio-visual, practice, and group interaction).

** Teachers have high, realistic expectations of students.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Accommodating Developmental Diversity

From: **Classroom practices are designed to reach students within a narrow developmental range (i.e., teaching to the "middle" group or tailoring instruction for only the most capable students).**

To: **Classroom practices are designed to accommodate the range of developmental diversity that is characteristic of the middle grades classroom.**

** Teachers plan instruction to accommodate diverse styles/modalities exhibited by students (auditory, visual, tactile, etc.).

** Teachers organize instruction so that it conforms to the varying attention spans of young adolescent students.

** Practice activities are carefully supervised, continuously monitored, and varied to match the appropriate levels of difficulty for students in the class.

** Teachers rephrase questions, often repeat statements, and encourage students to ask questions.

** Teachers use many examples to explain a point at the appropriate level of concreteness or abstractness.

** Teachers process student comments and other forms of feedback (e.g., facial expressions) to formulate appropriate levels of questions.

** Teachers demonstrate an awareness of developmental levels; understand the growth characteristics of the students: physical, social, emotional, moral, and intellectual.

** Teachers use cooperative experiences that minimize competition among class members and promote prosocial behavior which helps individual members of the class identify with the class as a whole.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Essential Skill Focus (Remediation, Development, Introduction)

From: **Instruction is focused mainly on the remediation of basic skills, or it is assumed that students have mastered all of the skills needed for the introduction of more advanced concepts.**

To: **The review of previously studied skills, the remediation of skill weaknesses, and the introduction of new skills are incorporated into the study of subject area content.**

** Students are provided opportunities to practice newly learned skills.

** Students receive remedial work if needed along with developmental and enrichment work in the subject areas.

** Lessons incorporate critical thinking skills and problem-solving skills.

** Teachers understand that literacy is not simply knowing how to read and write but that it also involves applying knowledge for specific purposes.

** Students practice active listening skills.

** Oral language and listening are components of the instructional program.

** An attempt is made to develop proficient literacy skills as well as to develop positive attitudes about reading and writing.

** Students use reference materials.

** Students are assisted in making inferences and drawing conclusions.

** Study skills and career education objectives are infused into the subject areas.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Promoting Higher Order Thinking Processes

From: **The focus of classroom instruction is mainly on activities and assignments that involve lower order thinking processes (rote memorization, factual recall, isolated skill drill, etc.).**

To: **The focus of classroom instruction incorporates activities and assignments that involve both lower order thinking processes (e.g., factual, basic skills) and higher order thinking processes (e.g., analytical, problem solving, etc.).**

** The lesson incorporates basic skills as well as critical thinking application and problem-solving skills.

** Students are assisted in making inferences and drawing conclusions.

** Within the lesson, the teacher addresses multiple levels of thinking (i.e., "what if . . . ," "suppose that . . . ," etc.) through classroom questioning techniques.

** The teacher regularly solicits suggestions or examples from students and encourages them to ask questions.

** The teacher processes student non-verbal cues and comments to formulate higher order questions.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Practical Application/Curriculum Relevance

From: **Limited opportunities are provided for students to apply skills or concepts learned in a lesson.**

To: **Frequent opportunities are provided for students to apply skills and concepts to real-world situations and individual or class interests.**

** Study skills and career education objectives are infused into all subject areas.

** Opportunities to make appropriate educational, recreational, and career choices are infused into academic classes.

** Community resources are incorporated into the instructional process.

** Current issues that impact the students and their community/world are incorporated into lesson planning.

** Students are provided opportunities to study topics of their own choosing based on their interests.

** Students are encouraged to participate in enrichment activities that provide for application and exploration of subject content (math, fair, science fair, Invention Convention, Invent America, art festivals, poetry/essay contests, etc.).

** Students bring examples from home to supplement what is being studied.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Instructional Methods and Strategies

From: **Instructional delivery reflects a limited repertoire of methods and strategies.**

To: **Instructional delivery reflects a variety of methods and activities.**

** Teachers use a variety of instructional approaches to address the needs of the students: lecture, simulations, discussion, demonstrations, laboratory exercises, and general skill practice.

** Opportunities for passive learning (when the student is listening to a presentation) and opportunities for active learning (when student is interacting with the teacher, other students, or resources) are provided.

** The teacher maintains a balance between teacher-directed learning and student-directed learning.

** The daily classroom routine is varied to meet varying student needs.

** The amount of time spent on a subject varies according to student needs; teachers experiment with the organization of time and people to best serve student needs.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Contemporary Instructional Practices

From: **Instructional planning and delivery consistently reflect the use of methods that are associated with the learning model of the past (single approach, passive learning, overuse of lecture, textbook driven, etc.).**

To: **Instructional planning and delivery reflect the utilization of methods that are consistent with recent research on effective instruction and current district staff development efforts.**

** Teachers teach strategies for learning as well as subject content.

** Teachers adapt material for use in the classroom and do not rely on the textbook as the organizer for the course.

** Teachers conduct "before, during, and after" reading activities in order to ensure better comprehension of the written text.

** Teachers integrate subject matter across disciplines.

** Teachers use cooperative learning or other group learning strategies.

** Teachers realize what kind of cues are helpful to weak students and which are helpful to stronger students (e.g., graphic organizers, prediction, prior knowledge, etc.).

** Teachers ask "What would happen if..." type questions; provide hypothetical situations and ask students to predict outcomes.

** Adequate wait-time is provided for students to respond to questions.

** Teachers use manipulatives and other "hands-on" activities.

** Teachers incorporate writing and oral experiences into the learning process.

** The "process" approach to writing is utilized.

** Teachers conduct activities which prepare students for learning experiences (establish learning set).

** Teachers use the "Ultimate Packet" (written by OCPS middle school teachers) to integrate subject matter across disciplines.

** Teachers incorporate questions that address multiple levels of thinking.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Success-Oriented Focus

From: **Only a few students are successful in mastering the course requirements as established by the teacher. Students who fall behind do not recover. Grade distributions reflect a high percentage of low/failing grades. Few grades are in the upper range.**

To: **All students continue to progress and are able to meet the course requirements as established by the teacher.**

** Teachers structure student work (adjust the length and difficulty of assignments) so that students have a sense of progress and mastery.

** Teachers teach strategies for learning as well as the content.

** In providing feedback, teachers do not put anxious students on the spot.

** Student progress/accomplishment is recognized in a variety of ways (written, oral, displays of student work, student recognition activities, etc.).

** Students are not protected from making errors; students are exposed to making errors and are encouraged to detect them and demonstrate what is wrong and why.

** Students are given an opportunity to pursue topics of their own interest.

** Students believe that they can learn; they believe that the instructional standards are written within their reach.

** Praise and approval are used as well as tangible rewards.

** Students are allowed to demonstrate mastery/achievement in a variety of ways.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Lesson Extension

From: **Instructional experiences are limited to those activities that occur within the classroom setting.**

To: **Out of class opportunities are provided for the purpose of extending and enhancing learning experiences that occur within the classroom setting.**

** Teachers understand that literacy is not simply knowing how to read and write but that it also involves the application of knowledge for specific purposes.

** Teachers use community resources in presenting subject matter.

** Instruction reflects involvement in community affairs.

** Homework assignments are structured so that students are provided appropriate practice which is an extension of the classroom lesson. (Factors such as clear directions, purpose, length of assignment, degree of difficulty, and feedback are reflected in homework practices.)

** Students bring examples from home to supplement what is being studied.

** Students are encouraged to participate in enrichment activities that provide for application and exploration of subject content (math fair, science fair, Invention Convention, art festivals, community service projects, poetry/essay contests, etc.).

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Communication About Student Progress

From: **Feedback to students is infrequent and/or limited to the identification of errors; communication to parents is limited to end-of-grading-period report cards; communication among teachers is limited.**

To: **Students receive frequent feedback that includes directions toward improvement; communication to parents is frequent and methods are varied; teachers share information about student progress on a regular basis.**

** Teachers monitor activities closely to ensure that students are completing assignments.

** Teachers provide prompt feedback to students on a regular basis regarding their progress (i.e., let students know how well their learning is progressing).

** Teachers provide feedback in a variety of ways (e.g., written, oral, etc.).

** Teachers emphasize what students have accomplished as well as identify areas needing improvement.

** Feedback is provided in a non-threatening manner.

** Feedback regarding student progress addresses academic and social development (as reflected in the district mid-term progress report).

** In conjunction with test scores, a variety of student work is used to determine grades.

** The grading criteria are clearly communicated to students and parents (i.e., grading scale, weighted value of assignments, project requirements, etc.).

** Teachers share information about student progress and use it to recognize achievement and develop strategies for improvement.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Instructional Materials

From: **Teachers rely on the textbook as the organizer for the course of instruction; teachers do not adapt supplementary material for use in the classroom.**

To: **Teachers employ a variety of instructional materials, both commercial and teacher-made.**

** Reference materials are readily available.
** Print and non-print media are used for instruction.
** Manipulatives and other hands-on materials are used to enhance instruction.
** Learning centers, laboratory activities, and demonstrations are used to enhance instruction.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Developing Student Responsibility and Independence

From: **The classroom is structured so that students are dependent upon the teacher for all learning.**

To: **The classroom is structured so that students are given opportunities and guidance in becoming more responsible, independent learners.**

** Students are taught how to organize information.

** Teachers teach strategies for learning as well as subject content.

** Teachers have students develop their own list of questions about the topic.

** Students are encouraged to ask questions before they move on to a new topic.

** Students are taught how to use and given opportunities to use reference materials.

** Students are involved in the evaluation of their achievement.

** Students are involved in the establishment of classroom/team rules.

** Students are encouraged to pursue topics of their own interest.

** Students are exposed to making errors and are encouraged to detect them and demonstrate what is wrong and why.

** Advisory components such as self-expression/decision-making and opportunities to prepare students to make appropriate recreational, educational, and career choices are infused into academic classes.

** Students are provided instruction and opportunities to practice appropriate group behaviors.

** Students are given opportunities to work independently.

** Learning strategies that allow students to be more self-reliant are taught (e.g., prediction, semantic mapping, graphic organizers, Cornell note-taking, SQ3R, question-answer relationships, summarization, list-group-label, feature analysis, journals, reference skills, etc.).

** Teachers maintain a balance between teacher-directed and student-directed learning.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Grouping Practices (Within the Team)

From: **Within the team, students are grouped according to similar ability levels at the beginning of the year, and the groups remain the same.**

To: **Within the team, students are grouped and regrouped, for a variety of reasons, for varying lengths of time, and in both homogeneous and heterogeneous patterns depending on student needs and instructional goals.**

** Team classes are sometimes combined for large group instruction, special presentations, or demonstrations.

** Students on the team are sometimes grouped for special needs.

** Group cohesiveness is a major goal of instruction.

** Where ability grouping is practiced, teachers are aware of the possible negative outcomes, and they design instruction to avoid these outcomes.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Grouping Practices (Within the Classroom)

From: **Within the classroom, small group learning does not occur or when it does occur only students of similar ability are grouped together.**

To: **Within the classroom, students are grouped and re-grouped, both homogeneously and heterogeneously, for various instructional purposes.**

** Teachers use a variety of grouping techniques (buddy system, tutorial grouping, research/task grouping, interest grouping, needs grouping, random grouping, etc.).

** Small group activities are used to provide for students' needs for social interaction.

** Guidelines for effective group work are taught and reinforced.

** Formal group activities or other cooperative learning strategies are used to encourage students to help each other master the material taught.

** Small group learning is used in conjunction with other instructional arrangements (e.g., large group, whole class, and independent/individual study).

** The seating arrangement of students is changed to accommodate group work.

** Students are encouraged to incorporate the ideas of others when arriving at solutions.

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Extensively
1	2	3	4
Practiced	Practiced	Practiced	Practiced

Action Plan for MSIPS

This form is designed to help teams/teachers develop recommendations to continue improving instructional practices. It is to be used for program planning and goal setting.

Team/Teacher Name _____ School _____ Grade _____

Principal _____ Grade Level Coordinator _____

Conceptual Area	Action to be Taken	Person Responsible	Date Projected	Date Accomplished

Conceptual Area	Action to be Taken	Person Responsible	Date Projected	Date Accomplished

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Mel Lucas - 1990-93 PRESIDENT
620 E. University Avenue
Gainesville, FL 32601

Cecil Carlton - 1989-92
PAST PRESIDENT
P.O. Box 1470
Pensacola, FL 32597

Mary Kay Habgood - 1990-93
TREASURER
215 Manatee Avenue West
Bradenton, FL 34205

Jack McAfee - 1991-1994
P.O. Box 2648
Vero Beach, FL 32960

Lee Rowell - 1990-93
445 W. Amelia Street
Orlando, FL 32802

Ken Dooley - 1991-94
P. O. Box 787
LaBelle, FL 33935

Frank Green - 1989-92
603 Canal Street
Milton, FL 32570

Esther Oteiza - 1990-93
P.O. Box 670
Ocala, FL 32670

John Headlee - 1991-94
1507 West Main Street
Inverness, FL 32650

Sandra McDonald -
1989-92
40 Orange Street
St. Augustine, FL 32084

Don Stone - 1989-92
2055 Central Avenue
Ft. Myers, FL 33901

Diane Nichols - 1991-94
530 La Solona Avenue
Arcadia, FL 33821

ADVISORS

Jake Beard
College of Education
Florida State University
Tallahassee, FL 32306

William Castine
College of Education
Florida A & M University
Tallahassee, FL 32307

Dan Morris
College of Education
Florida Atlantic University
Boca Raton, FL 33431

Carl Balado
College of Education
University of
Central Florida
Orlando, FL 32816

Charles Hayes
Central Florida Community College
P.O. Box 1388
Ocala, FL 32678

Bette Soldwedel
College of Education
University of
North Florida
Jacksonville, FL 32216

Theresa Vernetsen
College of Education
University of Florida
Gainesville, FL 32611

Phyllis NeSmith
Florida School Board
Association
P.O. Box 446
Nocatee, FL 33864

Lee A. Shiver
Florida Education Center
Department of Education
325 W. Gaines Street, Suite 414
Tallahassee, FL 32399

John Follman
College of Education
University of South
Florida
4204 Fowler Avenue
Tampa, FL 33620

Allen Fisher
College of Education
Florida International University
Tamiami Trail
Miami, FL 33199

Sam Mathews
Educational Research &
Development Center
University of West Florida
Pensacola, FL 32514

Charlie T. Council
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
P.O. Box 506
Sanibel, FL 33957

COUNCIL MEMBERS

County	Address	Contact Person
Alachua	620 E. University Ave. Gainesville, FL 32601	Mel Lucas
Charlotte	1445 Piatti Drive Punta Gorda, FL 33948	John Wiegman
Citrus	1507 West Main Street Inverness, FL 32650	John Headlee

COUNCIL MEMBERS

County	Address	Contact Person
Collier	3710 Estey Avenue Naples, FL 33942	Roger Otten
DeSoto	530 La Solona Avenue Arcadia, FL 33821	Diane Nichols
Dixie	Post Office Box 4-V Cross City, FL 32628	Lloyd Jones
Duval	1701 Prudential Drive Jacksonville, FL 32207	John O. Gillespie
Escambia	Post Office Box 1470 Pensacola, FL 32597	Cecil Carlton
Glades	P.O. Box 459 Moore Haven, FL 33471	Linda Taylor
Hamilton	Post Office Box 1059 Jasper, FL 32952	James Coe
Hardee	Post Office Drawer 678 Wauchula, FL 33873	Lee Burns
Hendry	Post Office Box 787 LaBelle, FL 33953	Ken Dooley
Hernando	919 North Broad Street Brooksville, FL 34601	Phyllis McIntyre
Highlands	426 School Street Sebring, FL 33870	Betty Hurlbut
Hillsborough	Post Office Box 3408 Tampa, FL 33601	John Hilderbrand
Indian River	Post Office Box 2648 Vero Beach, FL 32960	Jack McAfee
Lee	2055 Central Avenue Ft. Myers, FL 33901	Chris Cherau
Madison	Post Office Box 449 Madison, FL 32340	Roy W. Scott
Manatee	215 Manatee Avenue W. Bradenton, FL 34205	Mary K. Habgood
Marion	Post Office Box 670 Ocala, FL 32670	Esther Oteiza

COUNCIL MEMBERS

County	Address	Contact Person
Martin	Post Office Box 1049 Stuart, FL 33494	Mary Alice Stewart
Nassau	1201 Atlantic Avenue Fernandina Beach, FL 32034	James T. Northey
Okeechobee	100 S.W. 5th Avenue Okeechobee, FL 33472	Danny Mullins
Orange	445 West Amelia Street Orlando, FL 32802	Lee Rowell
Palm Beach	3910 RCA Blvd., Suite 1011 Palm Beach Gardens, FL 33410	Marc Baron
Pasco	7227 U.S. Highway 41 Land O'Lakes, FL 33537	Madeline Barbery
St. Johns	40 Orange Street St. Augustine, FL 32048	Sandra McDonald
St. Lucie	2909 Delaware Avenue Ft. Pierce, FL 34947	Jayne Hartman
Santa Rosa	603 Canal Street Milton, FL 32570	Frank Green
Sarasota	2418 Hatton Street Sarasota, FL 33577	Rick Nations
Suwannee	224 Parshly Street Live Oak, FL 32060	Marvin Johns
Taylor	Post Office Box 509 Perry, FL 32347	Lester Padgett
Union	55 S.W. 6th Street Lake Butler, FL 32054	Ray Dukes
Wakulla	Post Office Box 100 Crawfordville, FL 32327	Jan Putnal

Editor's Note

Donald O. Stone, Ph.D.

The Breivogel Conference was established in 1979 as an annual spring conference by the Florida Educational Research Council (FERC) in honor of Dr. William Breivogel. Dr. Breivogel was Executive Secretary of FERC for many years. At his untimely death in 1978, he had led FERC to a leadership role in Florida in bringing forward to practicing educators the results of educational research in teaching, learning, and measurement.

The Breivogel Conference at the University of South Florida at Fort Myers was the twelfth in the series. I wish we had space to include all the papers presented at the conference. Those we chose to include are representative of the continued high quality of the work being conducted in colleges of education in Florida. The papers presented here are intended to give practicing educators some insight and assistance in improving the quality of education in their school or community.